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THE
MODERN PART
OF AN
Universal History,

FROM THE
Earliest Accounts to the Present Time.

Compiled from

ORIGINAL AUTHORS.

By the AUTHORS of the ANCIENT PART.

V O L. XXXVII.



L O N D O N,

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C O N T E N T S

OF THE

THIRTY-SEVENTH VOLUME.

The CONCLUSION of the MODERN HISTORY.

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THE
CONCLUSION
OF THE
MODERN PART
OF
Universal History.

CHAP. I. *Continued.*

Of A S I A.

SECT. VII.

Of Persia.

THE ancient Persian monarchy reached from the mouth of the river Indus in the south-east, to the Hellespont in the south-west, which was two thousand eight hundred English miles in length; and from the Black Sea to the mouth of the Arabian Gulf, or Red Sea, which was two thousand miles in breadth. It also comprehended Egypt, part of Ethiopia and Lybia in Africa, the islands in the Ægean Sea, with Thracia and Macedonia in Europe. But it must be observed, that Egypt was then reckoned part of Asia, and that what the Persians had in Europe could not be properly called their possession, having enjoyed it only during the time of invasions, while they made war against the Greeks. The Parthians, long after them, established a new empire, which reached sometimes from the river Indus to the Euphrates,

Ancient extent of Persia.

phrates, and sometimes as far as the Hellespont, or the strait of the Dardanelles; the island of Taprobana, now Ceylon, on the coast of the Mogul empire, was also tributary to them, and they possessed in Africa, Egypt, Lybia, and as far as the frontiers of Ethiopia.

*Origin of
its name.*

Some derive the name of this country from Persis, one of its chief provinces, so called from Perseus, a Greek, who subdued the country, and gave it his own name. The poets make him the son of Jupiter and Danaë, and conqueror of all the East. Others derive its name from Paras, or Pharas, which signifies *a horseman*, because Cyrus taught the Persians the use of horsemanship, and published an edict, ordering all men to travel on horseback, though their journies were ever so short. This country is called Elam in the Old Testament, and the inhabitants Elamites, from Elam the son of Shem, who is said to have first planted it after the flood. The Greeks and Romans used the modern name of Persia, and all European nations do the same, with some variation in the termination; but the Turks and Persians call this country Agem.

*Present
boundaries,
extent, cli-
mate, and
air.*

Persia, at present, is bounded on the north by part of Russia, the Caspian Sea, and the country of the Usbeck and independent Tartars; on the east by the Mogul empire, from which a ridge of mountains and the river Indus divide it; on the south it has the Arabian Sea, which is part of the ocean and the Persian Gulf; and on the west it has Georgia and Aran, or ancient Armenia, from which the rivers Kar and Aros part it; also, the rivers Tigris and Euphrates, which separate it from the Turkish empire in Asia. Its greatest extent from south to north is about 19 deg. from 25 deg. 40 min. to 44 deg. 40 min. that is, one thousand one hundred and forty English miles; and its greatest extent from east to west is about one thousand two hundred and eighty miles, though in many parts it is much narrower, especially towards the north, where, on the west, it contains but a narrow track of land between Turkey and the Caspian Sea; and on the east it is also pent up between the same sea and the country of the Tartars. It is situated under the fourth, fifth, and six climates; whence the longest day in the north is fifteen hours and some minutes, and in the south thirteen hours and forty-five minutes; and the temperature of the air is therefore various, according to the different provinces. In the province of Edzerbaijan, or Aiderbeitzan, the capital of which is Tauris, to the south of Armenia or Aran,
the

the air is very cold, and yet very healthy; but in Tabristan, or Masanderan, to the south of the Caspian Sea, is very unwholesome. The country here is marshy, and abounds with an infinite number of insects, which dying when the marshes are dried up in summer, infect the air with poisonous exhalations; there are besides so many fetid waters in this province, that, by often overflowing part of the country, they occasion the inhabitants to have an earthy complexion. Shah Abas transported twenty thousand Armenian families into Tabristan, in order to people and cultivate it; but few of them withstood the insalubrity of the country, which is notwithstanding very fruitful. The air is not better in the province of Ghilan, which lies to the north-west of Tabristan; and, indeed, is so bad in both, that it is customary to ask, when any person is appointed governor of either, whether he is guilty of robbery or murder, that he should be sent thither? The province of Persian Irac, of which Ispahan is the capital, and which lies about the middle of the kingdom, enjoys six months hot, and six month's cold weather, though lying between the 31st and 36th deg. of north latitude. It snows there four or five times in the season, and sometimes in such quantities that it is impossible to find the roads. At about a league's distance from Ispahan, there is a stone three or four foot high; and when the snow happens to cover the ground to that height, it is a sign of a plentiful year. The first peasant that carries the news of it to court, receives a reward of a hundred to-mans, about two hundred and thirty pounds sterling. It rains here very seldom, except in April, when the showers are sometimes pretty heavy. In the southern provinces, especially along the sea-coast, the air is so excessive hot and sultry, that it is very dangerous, and even mortal to Europeans, particularly to such as are not temperate in eating and drinking.

Generally speaking, the soil in Persia cannot be much commended; for though some parts are fruitful, others are perfectly barren, being mountainous and sandy. By reason of the scarcity of rivers, there is only rain and dissolved snow for watering the land; and these falling from the mountains in small brooks and rivulets, render the vallies fertile. Here their corn ripens exceedingly, and in some parts they have a three-fold crop in a year. At Ispahan they have almost all kinds of the choicest European fruits, but fairer and better; and, by the dryness of the air, they keep a whole year. The melons are excellent,

Soil, produce, &c.

and not dangerous as in Europe; their apricots delicious, and their peaches large and good. They have nine or ten sorts of very good grapes, which yield good wine, chiefly white; for the red wines do not keep so well, except that of Shiras, which is excellent in its kind, and stomachical. They have few trees but what grow in their gardens, and of these the palm-tree is the most carefully cultivated. When young, and before it bears fruit, they dig on one side of it eight or ten fathom deep in the earth, till they find water; then the hole is filled up with pigeon's dung, of which they have always great provision, from the vast number of tame pigeons, kept chiefly for the sake of their dung, which serves both to manure the ground, and make hot-beds for raising melons.

*Culture of
the palm-
tree.*

It is said, that if they did not take that course with the palm-trees, they would not bear good fruit. But there is besides something very curious to be observed in the cultivating of this tree, which is, their taking every year, when the palm-trees are in blossom, the blossoms of the male palm-tree, and putting two or three bunches of them into the matrix of each female, when they begin to blow. If this was not done, they would produce dates with only skin and stone without any pulp. The matrix is that bud which contains the flowers, from which, in process of time, the dates are formed. The time of making this impregnation is about the end of November; not but that the male palm-trees also bear fruit, but being good for nothing, they therefore take all their blossoms for impregnating the female. As to the dates, it will not be improper to observe, that the use of them is very dangerous during the heats of summer, because they make the whole body break out in blotches and boils, and spoil the sight. Persia also produces all sorts of our culinary herbs, plants, roots, and pulse; it has good store of cattle, especially oxen, and abounds particularly with poultry and game. The Persian bread is generally very thin, white, and good, and commonly cheap enough. Their horses are the finest in all the East; they are higher than the English saddle-horses, straight before, a small head, legs wonderfully slender and finely proportioned, mighty gentle, good travellers, very light and sprightly, and doing good service till they are eighteen or twenty years old. The fine horses are valued from ninety to four hundred and fifty pounds sterling; but the great numbers of them sold into Turkey and the Indies, though none can be carried out of the kingdom without a special licence from the king, is what makes

*Persian
horses,
mules, as-
ses, camels.*

makes them so dear. Their mules are next in request; they pace well, never fall, and are seldom tired: the highest price of a mule is about forty-five pounds. Their Arabian breed of asses are the best in the world; they have smooth shining hair; they carry their heads lofty; their feet are light, and they move them gracefully. Some of them are valued at twenty pounds, being kept for riding, and their masters love them for their lightness and easy going. Their beasts of burden are, the common as, like ours, slow and heavy; and camels, of which there are two sorts, northern and southern. The latter, much the smaller, carry but seven hundred weight; the other can carry one thousand three hundred. Both are profitable to their masters, as costing little or nothing to keep. They travel without halter or reins, grazing on the road from time to time, notwithstanding their load. They shed their hair so clean in the spring, that they look like scalded swine, but then they are pitched over to keep the flies from stinging them. The camels hair is the most profitable fleece of all the tame beasts; fine stuffs are made of it, and, in Europe, hats with a mixture of a little beaver. The Persians take notice when the camel is in love to increase his load, otherwise he would be ungovernable.

Metals and minerals.

As Persia is very mountainous, it is full of metals and minerals, which they began to work upon in the last century much more than in preceding times. Their diligence in this respect was owing to the great shah Abas. The metals usually to be met with, are iron, steel, brass, and lead. No gold or silver have yet been found, though it should seem impossible that so many mountains, which produce most sorts of metals, with sulphur and saltpetre, should not likewise produce the more precious metals; but the Persians are too slothful to make any discoveries. Minerals and mineral waters abound throughout Persia; sulphur and saltpetre are extracted out of the mountain of Damavend, which separates Tabristan from Irac.

Wild beasts and insects.

Wild beasts are not very common in Persia, because there are few forests; but in all woody countries, as in Hircania, now called Tabristan, there are abundance of lions, bears, tigers, leopards, porcupines, wild boars, and wolves; but the last not so numerous as any of the other species. There is a beast, called chacal, seen almost every where; it roars hideously, and is very greedy after dead bodies, which it digs up, unless some person is set to watch the graves. There are but few insects in this country, which may be ascribed to the drought of the climate. In some

provinces,

provinces, however, there is an infinite number of grasshoppers, which are seen flying along like clouds, and so thick, that the air is darkened by them: and, in some parts, there are large black scorpions, which are so venomous, that those who are stung by them die in five hours. In some parts also, birds of a prodigious length are met with, being an ell long, and in shape resembling a toad, with a rough skin, and hard as that of a sea-dog. It is reported, that they sometimes fall on men and kill them. The southern provinces are infested with gnats, some with long legs, like those we call midges; and some white, and as small as fleas, which make no buzzing, but sting suddenly, and so smartly, that the sting is like the prick of a needle. Among the creeping insects, there is a long square worm, which they call hazarpag, or a thousand feet, because its whole body is covered with feet; it crawls very fast, and its bite is dangerous, and even mortal, when it gets into one's ears.

*Division
of Persia.*

Persia is divided into the following provinces:

I. Schirwan, which is the most northern province of Persia, and lies along the western coast of the Caspian Sea. It has part of Muscovy, or Georgia, on the north; the river Kur (the Cyrus of the ancients) parts it from the province of Erivan; and the Kur and Aras (the Araxes of the ancients) separate it from Aiderbeitzan. It is a cold, but healthy country; the soil, however, is observed to be extraordinary fruitful, yielding rice, wheat, barley, hay, and even great store of vines. The chief cities in this province are,

1. Derbent, the Caspia Claustura of the ancients, and still the gate from Persia into Muscovy. It stands on the western shore of the Caspian Sea, about a hundred and fifty-seven miles from Teflis in Georgia, towards the south-east, and fills up the whole defile between the Caspian Sea and the craggy mountains on the frontiers of Georgia. The coast is all a rock, which renders it dangerous for shipping. Upon the whole, this city, which is reckoned to be a league and a half in circumference, is considerable only on account of its strength, being the passage from Russia and Tartary into Persia. The Russians took it in 1723, and, by a treaty of peace concluded in 1735, it was ceded to them by the shah Nadir Thamas Kouli Khan. 2. Gangea, situated in a pleasant plain of about thirty leagues extent, and a hundred and eighteen miles distant from Derbent towards the south-west. It belongs properly to Georgia, as standing on the other side of the river Kur. The Persians call this place the garden
of

of the empire, by reason of its being exceedingly well watered, and pleasantly surrounded with groves of trees. It carries on a good trade, and on that account is much resorted to by strangers. Its bazars and market-places are very noble and magnificent. 3. Shamaki, reckoned the capital of this province, stands on a river which falls into the Caspian Sea, and is about sixty-six miles from Derbent towards the south, and ninety-two from Gangea to the south-east. This city was one of the best and most populous of Persia, before it was destroyed by an earthquake. It is, however, supposed to contain near sixty thousand inhabitants, chiefly Armenians and strangers, whom the pleasantness of the country and traffic have invited thither. The khan, or governor of Schirwan resides in it, and he is reputed one of the most considerable in all Persia, by reason of the great subsidies he generally levies upon the countries round about. 4. Baku stands on the western part of Schirwan, upon the Caspian Sea, eighty-two miles from Shamaki towards the south-east. It is fortified, and has a very fine harbour. The Russians having taken it during the troubles of Persia, it was yielded to them by the late shah Nadir.

II. Aiderbeitzan, or, as the Persians call it, Azerbeyan, borders to the east on the province of Ghilan and Tabristan; to the south on Persian Irak; to the west and north-west upon Upper Armenia, and the river Aras; and to the north on Schirwan. The etymology of the name of this province imports a country of fire, so called by the Persians, on account of the temple erected in it for keeping their sacred fire. The soil is fruitful, and the climate healthy, though cold. The most considerable cities are,

I. Tauris, a large and potent place, and the second in Persia for dignity, grandeur, riches, trade, and number of inhabitants. It is situate in a fine plain near a mountain, a hundred and ninety-two miles from Shamaki, towards the south-west. Being near the frontiers of Turkey, it has been often taken and retaken. The Turks surprised it during the late civil wars in Persia, and exercised their usual barbarity on the inhabitants, killing an incredible number of them; but Kouli Khan reduced it under the obedience of the Persians again, and pursued the Turks into their own territories. At the end of this city, to the west, upon a little mountain, stands a hermitage, a very neat piece of workmanship: they call it Ayn Haly, or the *house of Ali*. This caliph, whom Mo-

hammed made his son-in-law, was, as the Persians report, the most lovely man that ever was seen; so that when they would signify any thing extremely handsome, they say, it is Ali's eyes. The hermitage serves the inhabitants of Tauris for a place of devotion, and the way to it for a walk of pleasure. Most modern geographers take Tauris to be the ancient and celebrated Ecbatana, so frequently mentioned in Scripture, and in the ancient histories of Asia. But there are no remains to be seen at Tauris, either of the magnificent palace of Ecbatana, where the monarchs of Asia kept their court in summer, nor of that of Daniel, which was afterwards the mausoleum for the kings of Media, of which Josephus speaks in his tenth book, and which he assures us was entire in his time. If, then, these stately and magnificent palaces were standing sixteen centuries ago, in the place where Tauris now stands, the very ruins themselves are not now to be found; for amongst all those within the circuit of the city, none are seen but what are of earth, brick, or flint, which were not materials anciently made use of in Medea for the building of sumptuous palaces. The government of the province of Tauris is the chief in the Persian empire, and it is usually annexed to the dignity of the captain-generalship. There is scarce a place of greater resort in Asia; and there is, perhaps, no sort of merchandize but may be found in the magazines at Tauris. 2. Ardevil, about twenty-eight miles distant from Tauris to the east, in a fair and spacious plain, surrounded with mountains, which occasion continual changes of weather, in extremities of heat and cold, and subject the city to epidemical diseases. It claims dignity among the best cities in Persia, because it was honoured with the residence of several of their kings, and is also the place of their burial. Shah Eidar, author of the Shai sect, to whom the Sophian family, owed their origin, lived and died here. His sepulchre, which is no small ornament to the city, is visited with great devotion by pilgrims. Sophi Ismael, the first king of that race, is likewise buried here. 3. Sultania, about a hundred and thirty-five miles from Tauris, to the south-east. It was once the metropolis and largest city of Persia, as may appear from its great ruins; but is now inconsiderable, though there are some public buildings in it very remarkable as well for their structure as architecture. There are several other cities, and a great number of good villages in this province, but none equal to those mentioned.

III. Ghilan lies to the south-west of the Caspian Sea, which, with the province of Tabristan, bounds it on the east, Persian Irak on the south, Aiderbeitzan on the west, and the heath of Mockan on the north. This province is exceedingly well situated, having on one side the sea, along which it lies in form of a crescent, and on the other high mountains, by which it is so well separated from all the rest of Persia, that there is no entrance to it on the land-side, but by very narrow passes, which can be very easily defended. These mountains towards Persia are nothing but frightful ruins and precipices; but towards the province of Ghilan they have a most delightful descent, being covered with all sorts of fruit-trees. The country of Ghilan is the finest and most fruitful of all Persia. It is watered by several fine rivers, which spring on all sides from the mountains. The sea on the coast abounds with fish, as do also the rivers that fall into it; and to such a degree, that the farming out the privilege of fishing there, brings in a very considerable revenue to the king. The cities in Ghilan are Resht, or Rascht, Kesker, and Astará. The first wants nothing that can render a city agreeable, rich, and beautiful.

IV. Tabristan has the Caspian Sea on the north, Ghilan on the west, Persian Irak on the south, and Corasan on the east. It abounds with plants, fruit, and wood; and is watered with many springs and rivers, but yet is not without its inconveniences; for in winter it is very cold, and the roads are exceeding bad; and in summer the air is so malignant, that most of the inhabitants are obliged to remove to other places. The malignancy of the air is attributed to the great number of serpents, and other insects, which dying in summer for want of water, most springs in that season being dried up, cause a corruption and infection, which fill the air with contagious vapours. All the people of this country look yellowish and tawny. The places of note in Tabristan are, Tera-bath, Alazanderan, Escriff, Chocoporo, and Amoul. The first is remarkable for a palace of Abas the Great, which was adorned with noble furniture and paintings, and had in its precinct delightful gardens; the last is a place of some strength, having a strong fair castle, moated round, and some celebrated mosques, which are held in great veneration by the people upon account of four hundred and forty-four princes and prophets who are said to have been buried in them. The ridge of mountains which lie on the south of these two provinces, and divide them from

from Persian Irak, is a branch of Mount Tauris, which runs east and north to Tartary. The passage through it, in the road from Ispahan, is so narrow, that a robber, in king Abas's time, kept possession of it with his troop a long time, in spite of the forces the king sent against him.

V. Persian Irak, or ancient Parthia, so long the seat of empire in Asia, is the largest and principal province of the Persian monarchy. It is entirely the proper demesne of the king, and has no governor, as most of the other provinces. It is bounded on the east by Corasan and Segestan, on the south by Farsistan, on the south-west by Chusistan, on the west by Curdistan, on the north-west by Aiderbeitzan, and on the north by Ghilan and Tabristan; and its extent is about two hundred leagues in length, and a hundred and fifty in breadth. The air is very dry, and, in several respects, the most healthy of any in the world. The face of the country is more mountainous than level; the mountains are very bare, and scarce produce any thing but thistles and briars; but the plains are very fertile and pleasant where there is any water. There are upwards of forty cities in this large province, which may be thought a great number, when we consider that Persia is not an empire peopled proportionably to its extent. The principal cities and towns here are, 1. Abher, enjoying a very delightful situation, with fine gardens, and some elegant public structures. It is about twenty-six miles distant from Sultania to the south-east. 2. Casbin, a large city, six miles in circumference, and containing twelve thousand houses, and one hundred thousand inhabitants. It is seated in a very pleasant plain, twenty-eight miles from Abher; one of the fairest places to be seen in it is the Hippodrome, or Royal Piazza, seven hundred paces in length, and two hundred and fifty in breadth. Abas the Great removed his court from this city to Ispahan, but the royal palace and gardens are still kept in good order; and the Persian grandees, from father to son, still also keep possession of their numerous palaces, by reason of the long residence from time to time of the court at this place. Most of our European geographers assert, that Casbin is the ancient Arfacia; but the Persian historians will not allow it to be so ancient. 3. Sawa, or Sava, a great city, but thinly inhabited, seated in a sandy and barren plain, about eighty-eight miles from Casbin. There is nothing remarkable in it nor its environs, except the mausoleum or monument

ment of the prophet Samuel, in the middle of a magnificent mosque, which stands four leagues to the east of Sawa. The Persians believe he was there interred, and have therefore made it one of their most famous places of pilgrimage and devotion. Opposite this mosque, or nine miles west of the city, are seen the vestiges of the famous city of Rey, the largest in all Asia. The wonders related of it are incredible. The Persians histories assert, that in the ninth century of Christianity, the city of Rey was divided into ninety-six quarters, each of which contained forty-six streets, and every street four thousand houses and ten mosques, besides six thousand four hundred colleges, sixteen thousand six hundred baths, fifteen thousand towers of mosques, twelve thousand mills, seventeen hundred canals, and thirteen thousand inns. In the wars between the two sects of Mohammedans, one of which called in the Tartars, this city was destroyed, towards the end of the sixth age of the Hegira. 4. Komm, a large city, and pretty populous, containing about fifteen thousand houses, among which are some fine bazars and caravanseras, though the trade of the place is inconsiderable. It is situate in a plain, by the side of a river, about thirty-seven miles south-east of Sawa. The chief thing it is remarkable for is the mosque, in which the princess Fatima, Mohammed's daughter, and two kings, Abas I. and Sophi I. lie interred. Nothing can be imagined richer, neater, and more magnificent, than this mosque; the Persians call it *mossumma*, or *pure*, and hold it in great veneration. 5. Hamadan, one of the largest and most considerable cities in Persia, having a good trade, and being a stage of caravans going to Mecca. It lies on the road to Bagdat, about ninety-five miles north-west of Komm. The Jews flock here in pilgrimage to visit the tombs of Esther and Mordecai, which they assert to be still in this place. 6. Cashan, a populous and wealthy city, by its manufactures of all sorts of silks, stuffs, and tissues of gold and silver. It stands about ninety-eight miles north of Ispahan, in a large plain near a high mountain, which being opposed to the south, the reverberation of the rays of the sun so furiously beat upon it in the summer, that the heat is intolerable. The bazars and baths of this place are elegant structures, and the royal inn, founded by Abas the Great, in the suburbs, is the fairest in all Persia. Adjoining to it stands the royal palace, and opposite to it another, designed for lodging ambassadors. 7. Ispahan, the capital of Persian Irak, and now the metropolis

tropolis of the whole Persian empire. It is situate on the banks of the river Zenderoud, in lat. 32 deg. 26 min. east longitude 52 deg. 55 min. The walls of the town are about twenty thousand paces in compass, built with mud, and kept very indifferently, though they are so hid by the adjacent houses and gardens, that one can hardly find them out. Here are also a castle and ditch. The beauty of this city consists chiefly in a great number of sumptuous palaces, handsome and airy houses, spacious caravanseras, very beautiful bazars, many canals and streets planted on both sides with lofty plane-trees; though, generally speaking, the other streets are narrow, crooked, and not paved: but the air being very dry here, and every housekeeper causing the street to be watered before his door twice a day, there is neither so much dirt nor dust as in many great cities in Europe. The Meidan Shah, or *Royal Square*, is one of the finest in the world. It is four hundred and forty paces long, and one hundred and sixty broad, and is surrounded by a canal built with bricks, cemented with a black mortar, which, in time, becomes harder than freestone. The royal mosque is at the south end of this square, and its portico is wonderfully adorned with a thousand figures, and an inconceivable profusion of gold and azure, the whole being also inlaid with enamelled squares, and a frieze round it of the same materials. Few structures can equal the magnificence of this, many of its pieces and decorations being wrought in a manner unknown to our European architects. The same may be said of the royal palace, and the haram, or *women's apartment*. The palace is certainly one of the most spacious in the world, being near a league and half in compass. Its great portico stands in the royal square, and is all built of porphyry, and very high. The Persians revere it as sacred. The suburbs of Ispahan are very large, and are chiefly inhabited by Armenians, of whom an account was given under that article. There are besides one thousand four hundred and sixty villages round about Ispahan, and the inhabitants live chiefly upon the manufacturing of silk and wool. 8. Yezd, a large city, one hundred and seventy-five miles from Ispahan to the east. It has some trade and manufactures of silks and stuffs, mixed with gold and silver, and sometimes with cotton. The women of Yezd are reckoned the handsomest in all Persia.

VI. Chusistan is a pretty large province, bounded on the north by Persian Irak; on the west by Irak Arabi, or Yerak;

Yerak; on the south-west by the Tigris and Euphrates, a little before and after their junction; on the south by the Persian gulf; and, on the east by Farfistan. This is the same country with Cush in Assyria, having preserved its ancient name with only a Persian termination. Its chief cities are, 1. Suster, the ancient Susa, and the winter-seat of the Persian monarchs; as Ecbatana was their summer-seat. It is a fair and large city. 2. Ahwas. 3. Laurestan; but both inconsiderable.

VII. Farfistan, sometimes called Fars, the ancient Persia, has Persian Irak on the south; Chusistan, with part of the Persian gulf, on the west; the remainder of the same gulf on the south; and Kerestan, with part of Segestan, on the east. Laurestan is included within this province, as well as the Isle of Ormus, which are reckoned to belong to Farfistan, since they were conquered by the Persians. The most remarkable places in this province, are,

1. Schiras, the capital, and reputed the next in rank after Ispahan. It is seated one hundred and seventy-five miles from that city, in a plain, surrounded with craggy mountains, which are nothing but dry rocks, and neither bear tree nor weeds. The soil about the city is very good and fruitful, and produces the excellent wine of Schiras, so famous all over Persia. There is nothing very beautiful in the city itself, being now almost half-ruined. 2. The ruins of the ancient Persepolis, thirty-five miles north-east of Schiras. This city, in ancient times, was esteemed the chief of the East, and excelled all others in glory and worldly felicity. The wealth of it is evident by the great plunder Alexander's soldiers made, and by the treasure he himself seized, which amounted to one hundred and twenty thousand talents in silver and gold. The citadel, which was the king's palace, was a structure of such surprising magnificence and beauty, that perhaps no building ever exceeded it. The king's throne was of pure gold, adorned with pearls and precious stones, and the furniture of the chambers so excessively rich, that nothing could exceed it, the bedsteads being of solid gold, beset with gems, and every thing else proportionate. But its glory did but procure its destruction; for, at a great feast Alexander held in it, Thaïs, the Athenian courtesan, proposed to the king, then heated with wine, as a noble exploit, to burn that fine palace, which he readily agreed to, and led the way himself with a firebrand. Thus fell Persepolis, which for several ages had been the seat of
the

the Persian monarchs, giving law to many nations, and being a long time the terror of Greece. The lofty columns still standing declare the height of the fallen roofs, and the stairs, the steps of which are thirty feet long, shew the apartments they led to were much greater than any thing we now see. A large town, now built on the place where the old city stood, is called Mirkas Chan.

3. Karfcrom, about sixty-five miles from Schiras, a town of many houses, but all miserable. 4. Bender Rik, Bender Rakel, Bender Delme, and Bouchier, all maritime towns on the Persian gulf, but of little trade either by sea or land. The inhabitants are chiefly Arabs. The islands of Carac lie about west-north-west, twelve leagues from Bouchier. One of them has no inhabitants but deer and antelopes. The southernmost has between two and three hundred poor fishermen on it, who serve shipping with pilots for Bassora. The anchoring-place is at the north end of the inhabited island, in twelve fathom water. 5. Churchoir, a town on the sea-coast, twenty-one miles south of Bouchier, noted for the ruins of a large castle and pier, built by the Portuguese, who kept a garrison there, and had gallies continually cruising in the bottom of the gulf, to compel all ships to pay ten per cent. toll to them. 6. Congon, a town of pretty good trade, for most of the pearl fished for at Bahara, on the Arabian side, is brought here to market, and many fine horses are sent from hence into the Indies, where they generally sell very well. It stands on the south side of a large river, about ninety-five miles south-east from Bender Rick. 7. Lar, the capital of a province, thence called Larestan, forty-eight miles distant from the coast of the Persian gulf to the south. This country was for some time a kingdom in the possession of the Gaures. The city is built on a rock, and has nothing worth notice in it but the khan's house, the market-place, the bazars, and the castle. In the suburbs are several houses pretty well built, amongst which is the Dutch East India house. The town contains about four thousand houses. The Jews, who are pretty numerous in it, exercise a silk-manufacture, and the other inhabitants make the best musket-barrels. 8. Congo, or Bender Congo, a little sea-port town, forty-five miles distant from Lar to the south. It once made a good figure in trade when the Portuguese were settled here, but now, it seems, is chiefly confined to some small commerce with the Banians and Moors from India. The territory of the town is of small extent, but produces excellent fruits of several

several forts. 9. Gomrom, or Bender Abassi, which signifies the *Port of Abas*, being so called from Shah Abas the Great, who first brought it into vogue. It lies about seventy-two miles to the south-east of Lar, on the coast of Farfistan, just opposite the island of Ormus, in a very narrow streight formed by that island, and in a very convenient haven. From a small village, as it was before the reduction of Ormus, it is grown to considerable, that it may be ranked with the best towns in Persia; for, though still but a small place, yet its convenient situation for trade brings a great resort of ships and caravans to it. The English and Dutch factories support its commerce to a great degree, and the Persian governor who resides here, lives in great splendour.

The island of Ormus is two leagues distant from the main land to the southward, almost at the mouth of the Persian gulf which reaches from thence to Bassora, which is the bottom of it. An account has been already given of Ormus, under the Article of Arabia Felix. *Persian islands Ormus.*

The island of Bahara, or Baharen, lies near the north-east coast of Arabia Felix, in the midway between Bassora and Ormus. The largest, brightest, roundest, and truest oriental pearls are fished for here. This fishery begins in June, and ends with August. The profit of it is computed at one hundred and ten thousand crowns per annum. *Bahara.*

Quesmo is a pretty large, fruitful, and well inhabited island. The west end of it is not above a league and a half from Congo, and the east end about a league from Comrom. It furnishes Ormus with wheat, barley and some other provisions, where the people could not live without them. *Quesmo.*

Before we proceed, it will not be improper to add a word or two concerning the Persian gulf, or sea of Elcatif, as sometimes called. It is a large bed of water lying between the coasts of Persia and Arabia Felix, about one hundred and seventy miles wide in the middle, but contracted to near a quarter of that breadth at the two extremities. It commences in the west, in the 49th degree of longitude east of London, at the gulf of Bassora, which is made by the mouth of the two great rivers Euphrates and Tigris united, and extends eastward almost to the 57th degree of longitude, where cape Muca, a promontory of the province of Vodanor, in Arabia Felix, by stretching forward to latitude 26 deg. 15 min. shuts it up into a mouth, not above thirty-six miles over, where the island, *Persian gulf.*

island of Ormus is seated, which, together with the other two islands above mentioned, entirely command the passage.

VIII. Kereftan, or Kerman, is the ancient Caramania, and is bounded on the west by Farsiftan, on the south by the Persian or Arabian Sea, on the east by Mecran, and on the north by Segestán. The country is mountainous, and the upper-grounds barren; but the vallies are reasonably fruitful, and yield variety of odoriferous flowers, especially roses, the distilled waters of which are sold to advantage by the inhabitants at Ispahan. The sheep of this province bear the finest wool in the world, which they shed, after eating new grass. This wool is chiefly manufactured in the town of Kerman, the only place of any note in this country, where also the best scymetars are made, and a kind of procelain, little inferior to the Chinese. The Gaures, or ancient Persians, inhabit this province.

IX. Makeran, or Mecran, is a small province, situated towards the mountains, which divide Persia from India on the east, and surrounded with deserts and sandy plains. It is inhabited by the Balluches, a fierce and warlike nation.

X. Segestán has Corafan on the north, part of Candahar, with Sablestan on the east, Mecran on the south, and Farsiftan on the west. The face of the country is for the most part flat, and bears a vast number of palm trees; but it is withal very sandy, and so much exposed to winds, that the sand often overwhelms the houses, and even whole villages. The road by land, from Persia to India, lies through this country; but it is so barren and sandy, that few care to venture through, but chuse rather to go by sea.

XI. Sablestan has Candahar on the north, Segestán on the west, Mecran on the south, and on the east the high mountains which separate Persia from India. This country is watered by several rivers, springs, and lakes, and is full of mountains known to the ancients by the name of Paropamisi montes. They are a branch of mount Taurus, and are all covered with forests. The inhabitants are rude and clownish.

XII. Candahar has Sablestan on the south, the Mogul empire on the east, the country of Balk on the north; of which an Usbeck Tartar is prince; on the south also part of the Mogul empire with Segestán; and on the west, part of Corafan. This province is very mountainous, yet produces abundantly all sorts of provisions that are necessary

sary for the subsistence of its inhabitants, except towards Persia, where it is very barren. The chief city, which bears the same name with the province, lies about six hundred and seventy miles from Ispahan to the east. It had princes of its own for a time, who subsisted on the mutual jealousy of the two powers between which it was situated; but, at last, Shah Abbas the Great, who made as many conquests by his policy as arms, found a fair opportunity to engage the prince, who was master of it in his time, to put himself under his protection, which he did accordingly, on condition that a prince of his race should always command in Candahar, as vassal and tributary to the king of Persia. Shah Abbas, who, according to the maxim of all true politicians, was a punctual observer of his word, not only secured the possession of Candahar to the prince who submitted, but also continued the government of it to his son Alimerdan Khan, after the death of his father. Shah Sephi, grandson of Shah Abbas, succeeding him, the court of Persia changed their maxims. As Alimerdan Khan was possessed of great wealth, which he had, for most part, by inheritance from his ancestors, and as he made the figure of a potent sovereign in his government, always eating out of gold vessels, and keeping a house almost as magnificent as the Persian kings, the ministers, who governed during Shah Sephi's minority, and who, by inspiring him with violent suspicions against several of the greatest noblemen, had persuaded him to put some of the most considerable of them to death, did not fail to raise the same jealousy in his breast against the prince of Candahar, whose wealth, of which they hoped to be sharers, tempted them more than the possessions of the others whom they had caused to be cut off. The difficulty was to get him to court; for the misfortune of those, who, after being drawn thither in that manner, left their heads there, made him very loth to go; and he saw that, without regard to his remonstrances, couriers were dispatched to him one upon another, with pressing orders to repair to Ispahan. At that time, he had two children at the court of Persia, and he would not, perhaps, be so much pressed as he was to come to Ispahan, had it not been presumed, that his regard for his children, who remained as hostages at court, would hinder him from carrying matters to extremities. But having before his eyes the example of another governor more powerful than himself, who was invited to court with his children, only to suffer death, he imagined, that instead of saving the lives

of his two sons, he should only hasten their death with his own; and therefore chose to take refuge with the Great Mogul, by delivering up Candahar to him. His children would undoubtedly have been cut off with him, if he had gone to Ispahan; but the fear of exasperating the inhabitants of the province of Candahar, and of rendering them irreconcilable by putting to death the two young lords, obliged the court of Persia, which hoped one day or other to recover Candahar, not only to keep fair with them, but also to treat them with more distinction than ever. This policy of Shah Sephi had its effect under his son and successor Abas II. for when that prince laid siege to Candahar, in the beginning of his reign, the Persians, who composed the greater part of the army sent by the Mogul to its relief, remembering the kind treatment of Alimerdan Khan's children at the court of Persia, did not exert themselves as they might have done to hinder Abas II. from making himself master of it, which he did in 1650; since which time, that city has always remained in the hands of the Persians, notwithstanding all the attempts afterwards made by the Mogul to recover it. The place is of the more importance to Persia, because it covers the frontiers towards the Indies, and is the strongest in the whole kingdom, having been fortified by European engineers, employed there by the Mogul, while master of it. Its opulence is owing to its being the thoroughfare of the caravans between Persia and the Indies; and a judgment of its wealth may be formed by the tribute paid to the king, which was twelve pound weight of gold for every day in the year, exclusive of many other duties, fines, and forfeitures.

XIII. Corasan, including the province or kingdom of Balk, has Persian Irak with Astrabad on the west, from which it is parted by a large desert; Faristan, with Segestan, and another large desert, that parts it from Keresstan, and Candahar on the south; the mogul's dominions on the east and north-east, and Usbeck Tartary on the north. Hence it appears, that it is a very large province. It is very populous and fruitful, and produces the best manna in the world. It has a rock of turquoise-stone, so excellent, that the king allows none to be sold but to himself. The Persian geographers reckon thirty-two considerable towns in this country, four of which are royal cities, where the kings of Persia have sometimes resided: these are Balk, Merou, Nischabour, and Herat. The last is a strong place, fortified by Tamerlane, and said to be

be thirteen miles in circumference. Meched, another city in this province, is very famous for a pilgrimage instituted here in honour of the iman Reza, by Shah Abas the Great. This he did with a political view to divert the resort of his subjects to Mecca and Medina, whereby a great deal of gold was carried out of the kingdom; and, as he knew the devotion of the people is easily led away by external decoration, he spared no expence in this respect, even so far as to cover with plates of gold the mosque of this iman, who was always held in great veneration by the Persians. This city is surrounded with a noble wall, whereon stand three hundred towers.

XIV. Astrabad with Khoemus, are seated in the north-west part of Persia, having Corasan on the east, part of Tartary on the north, the Caspian Sea on the west, and also a little on the north; Tabristan on the west, and a branch of mount Taurus, with the desert of Segestan on the south. It is a mountainous country, and, except near the banks of the two rivers Margah and Arias, which run through it, the soil is sandy and barren; but in that part it is plain champain land, pleasant and fruitful, and produces grapes of a wonderful bigness. The inhabitants are a mixture of Persians and Tartars.

As a good part of Persia lies upon the Caspian Sea, it will not be improper to give here a description of it. This sea is so called from the Caspii, a nation dwelling near its banks; or otherwise the Hyrcanian Sea, thus denominated from the province of Hyrcania, now Tabristan, or Mazanderan, whose shore it washes. It is a very large bed of water, quite surrounded with land, and being destitute of any known efflux, is therefore by some writers styled a lake. It approaches in form to that of an oblong square, the longest side of which, from north to south, is about six hundred and forty English miles. Its greatest breadth, from east to west, is about three hundred and ten miles, but in many places it is much narrower. On the west it is bounded by the kingdom of Astracan, and by the provinces of Georgia and Shirwan; on the north by Russian Tartary; on the east by Usbeck Tartary, and part of Astrabad, which last bounds it on the south-east, and partly on the south, where it also washes Tabristan and Ghilan, which likewise surround the south-west part of it. The Persians call this sea Kulsun, or otherwise the sea of Baku. It receives the great river Wolga, which itself is like a sea for largeness, and near a hundred other rivers, and yet is never increased or diminished; nor ever observed to ebb and flow. This constant appearance has

The Caspian Sea described.

given rise to many speculations, and some think, that it must have a subterraneous communication with the Black Sea, or Persian gulf, though the former is one hundred and twenty, and the latter near two hundred leagues distant from it. In favour of this opinion, F. Avril, a modern traveller, says, that near the coast of Ghilan, there is a mighty whirlpool in the Caspian Sea, which, by absorbing every thing that comes near it, there must be consequently a cavity in the earth there; and that in the Persian gulf a great quantity of willow tree leaves are found floating, though no willow trees grow any where near that gulf; whereas, great plenty of them are seen on the coast of the Caspian Sea, whence they must be carried by subterraneous passages from that sea to the gulf. Perhaps, the quantity of vapours drawn by the sun in this hot climate, may be equal to the quantity of water this sea receives from rivers; and thus we may account for its equal fulness. It was formerly very little navigated, except by Cossack rovers, who used to plunder all they met; but the Russians, being now masters of a part of the coast, are continually sailing from one post or other of it, and carry on a profitable commerce with most of the adjacent countries. The water of this sea is as salt as any other sea-water; and breeds a variety of good fish.

*History of
the Persian
monarchy.*

When the kingdoms of Media and Persia were united under Cyrus the Great, in the year of the world 3419, that prince having conquered Babylonia, erected the second or Persian monarchy, upon the total ruin of the Assyrian empire, and thereby extended the Persian dominions through Assyria, Armenia, and all Asia Minor, to the very borders of Europe; but this monarchy continued no longer than two hundred and six years, in a succession of twelve kings; the third of whom, Darius Hystaspes, invaded Greece with an army of one hundred thousand foot, and ten thousand horse, a force sufficient for over-running all that country, if the virtue and bravery of the Greeks had not exceeded what could possibly have been expected from men. The Greeks could not get together an army of above ten thousand men, and yet this handful of people ventured, under the conduct of Miltiades, to give the Persians battle in the plains of Marathon, near Athens; and, with the loss of one hundred and ninety-two men only, according to Herodotus, entirely defeated that immense army. Xerxes, the son and successor of Darius, renewed the attempt against Greece, and

and after ten years' preparation, invaded it with so large an army, that the whole land was in a manner covered, and entire rivers drank dry by them; but this expedition did not prove more successful; for, after the battle by land at the streights of Thermopylæ, and the sea-engagement at Salamis, Xerxes was glad to retire, and leave his general Mardonius with three hundred thousand men, to finish the war; which was, indeed, soon after put an end to, by the entire rout of the Persian army, at the famous battle of Plataea. About one hundred and fifty years after, Alexander, king of Macedon, invaded Asia, fought the numerous Persian armies, first, at the river Granicus, in Phrygia; secondly, at Issus, in Cilicia; and thirdly, at Arbela, in Assyria; in all which battles he obtained entire victories, and finally entered Babylon in triumph. Here began the third, or Grecian monarchy, which lasted, properly speaking, only during the king's life.

At the grand partition of Alexander's dominions among his captains, Persia was made part of the Syrian kingdom of Seleucus Nicanor, but did not continue long so; for in the reign of Antiochus Theos, the grandson of Seleucus, the Parthians revolted under the conduct of Arsaces, a nobleman of that country, who persuaded the neighbouring nations to join with him, and assumed the title of king. He was succeeded by a race of princes, who were potent monarchs, and opposed the Romans with greater vigour than any other nation. This kingdom remained thus under the Parthian government, from the year of the world 3718, to the year of Christ 228, when Artaxerxes, a noble Persian, having slain Artabanus III. and repelled the Romans, ascended the throne. This king is reckoned to have restored the ancient Persian race, and from him began a new dynasty, or race of kings, who in twenty-eight generations, governed this country four hundred and six years.

In the year 634, the Saracens, under Omar, the successor of Mohammed, defeated Hormisdas II. This put an end to that kingdom; so that Persia became a part of the Saracen empire, and was governed by certain deputies, with the title of sultans, under the grand caliph. In process of time, the sultans of Persia, Babylon, &c. quarrelling among themselves, occasioned several revolutions and fluctuations of power, which, in the end, brought in the Turks. Tangrolipix overcame the sultan, or king of Persia, in the year 1030, and assumed the government of that country. He was succeeded by a race

of Turkish princes for about two hundred years, and then a new dynasty of Tartarian princes gained the government. Haalon, the first of these, became king of Persia in the year 1260, and was succeeded by eight of his posterity till the year 1337; when, upon the death of Abusaid, the last of that house, the kingdom became divided amongst several Tartar princes, till about the year 1400, when Tamerlane reduced the whole to his obedience, and left it to his son Mirza Charock: but that family did not hold it long; for after continual feuds among themselves, in a succession of six generations, the last of them was defeated and slain in 1472, by Usum Cassan, an Armenian prince, who was, at that time, governor of Turcomania, and founded a new dynasty called the Armenian. There were five other princes of this line, the last of whom was at first successful in war against the Sophian family, who then began to make a great figure in Persia; but he was at last defeated by Ismael Sophi, the founder of the dynasty of the Sophian race, who governed Persia till within these few years.

The kings of Persia of this family pretended to be derived from Ali, who was a cousin-german to Mohammed, and his son-in-law, by marrying Fatima his daughter. Ali, succeeding Mohammed, made a very great alteration in his law; he added some things, left out others, put new glosses, and made such a reform in it, that it might pass for a new law. All these alterations occasioned a division in Mohammedanism. The greater number adhered to the law, as delivered by Mohammed, and preserved by Omar, one of his chief disciples; and the rest declared for it, as it had been corrected by Ali. Sophi, said to be descended from Ali, flourished towards the end of the fourteenth century, and was the first that rescued Ali's laws from the obscurity in which they had been buried for many ages. His grandson, Scich Eidar, preached up the same doctrine, but with a great many alterations, pretending to a revelation, that no mussulman should be saved but those who followed the doctrine of Ali, such as he explained it. His reputation was so great for sanctity and integrity of life, that Usum Cassan, who was made king of Persia, as above observed, gave him his daughter Martha in marriage. Usum Cassan, dying in 1478, was succeeded by his son Jacup, and after him by two other kings, who had reigned till the year 1490. Rustan, a young nobleman, ascended the throne, and reigned seven years. Conscious to himself of Scich Eidar's better right to the crown

crown, and alarmed at the concourse of people from all parts, to embrace his religion and adhere to his person at Ardevil, the place of his birth and residence, he procured him to be assassinated there; and persecuted to such a degree the new sect he was establishing, that several who had embraced it, abandoned it again. This Rustan was killed by Achmet, who, in his turn, after a reign of six months only, was put to death with torture by one of Rustan's principal officers. Hereupon, Alvante, a nobleman, the nearest akin to Usum Cassan, was elected to fill the throne.

Scich Eidar, whom Rustan caused to be murdered at Ardevil, left three sons, who would have met with the same fate as their father, if they had fallen into that prince's hands. The two eldest, who were of age to see their danger, fled, one into Asia Minor, the other to Aleppo. Ismael, the third, who was but a child, was saved by the care of his father's friends, who put him under the protection of a nobleman of Tabristan, by name Pyrchalim, a friend to their family, who was master of several places on the Caspian Sea. Pyrchalim took great care of young Ismael's education, and caused him to be brought up in the principles of the sect of his father, who had been artful enough to venture in favour of Ismael, one of those predictions that never hurt those for whose advantage they are made, and which are often a great help to them in the execution of their projects, by prepossessing the common people in their favour: in short, he had foretold, that his son would be a great prophet and a conqueror; and that by his zeal, and by the conquest of a great part of the East, he would one day equal the glory of Mohammed himself.

As soon as Ismael was grown up, and began to appear in the world, his behaviour was such as could not but confirm the great hopes people had conceived of him; and by the noble indifference he shewed upon all occasions for government and grandeur, he opened for himself a path to it, which was so much the safer as he seemed to be the more worthy of it: yet, as an honest care to recover his patrimony, was not inconsistent with the disinterestedness he valued himself upon, he made use of this pretence to arm a good number of his disciples, and having reinforced them with some succours which Pyrchalim had sent him, he entered Armenia, where the lands lay which Usum Cassan had given his mother for her dowry, and took possession of them by force of arms. This his first success,

gave his party a reputation, which increased daily; he next attacked the castle of Marmurlac, which was full of riches, and having forced and plundered it, he led his army against Sumach, the capital of Mesopotamia, which he also took, and gave the plunder to his troops. From thence he marched his army towards Tauris, then the capital of Persia, and where Alvante, lately placed upon the throne, had his residence, and who fled at his approach, and retired towards Armenia. Alvante had created himself many enemies in Tauris by his cruelties, and was even destitute of the necessary forces for holding out a siege. Ismael entered with triumph into Tauris, but soon pursued Alvante, in order to prevent his joining with his brother Moratcham, who was raising troops for him in Assyria towards Babylon; and having surprised him, his troops were defeated, and the king himself killed, fighting at the head of them. Moratcham was, in a short time after, totally routed and put to flight, as he was marching to possess himself of Tauris. This was in the year 1499, which is reckoned the first of Ismael's reign. A series of victory afterwards attended his arms; he reduced Babylon, Mesopotamia, and all the neighbouring provinces to his obedience; he withstood all the efforts of the Turks, and died in 1525, at the age of forty-five years, a quiet possessor of one of the largest and most powerful monarchies in the world, and was reputed one of the greatest and most famous kings that ever ruled in the East.

From him there was a succession of princes by the names of Thamas, Ismael II. Mahomet Codabende, Emir Hemse, and Ismael III, till Abas the Great, the third son of Mahomet Codabende, ascended the throne in 1585, his two brothers, Emir Hemse, and Ismael III. having reigned but a few months. This prince raised the splendor and power of Persia to a very considerable height, and was afterwards justly stiled the restorer of it. He enlarged his empire on the side of India; on the south reduced Lar and Ormus, and drove the Turks out of Armenia and Georgia, and all the conquests they had made on Persia since the death of Ismael I. which were at least one hundred and fifty leagues in length, from north to south, reckoning from Tauris to the extremities of the kingdom of Caket, at as much, or even more, in breadth from the western coast of the Caspian Sea, to the Black Sea; to which may be added Babylon, with all Mesopotamia and Assyria. But as by all those great feats of arms he shewed himself an able soldier, he discovered that he

had yet greater talents as a statesman, in the measures he took to make himself absolute in his kingdom, and to civilize it, by crushing the power of the petty princes, who had often supported one another in a total independency on the crown. He died about the close of the year 1629, and was succeeded by his grandson Sephi I. a cruel prince, who is supposed to have died by poison in 1642, after a reign of twelve years. His son and successor Abas II. was very different from him, and it may be said, that next to Ismael I. and Abas the Great, Persia never had a better king of the Sophian family. Sephi II. his eldest son, who succeeded him in 1666, was a prince of a cruel and yet indolent disposition; he died in 1694, leaving two sons, Husein and Abas, of which the former succeeded him in the throne.

Husein continued many years in the peaceable possession of his throne, and would have died so, were it not for the corruption and venality of his court. Every thing being set to sale in his reign, Myrr Weis, a popular nobleman, purchased the government of Candahar, but was soon after displaced to make room for another nobleman, who had advanced more money. Myrr Weis, hereupon becoming a malecontent, assembled his friends and dependents, and drove his rival out of Candahar, after which success he began his march towards Ispahan, the capital city, but died before he arrived there. Mahomood, his son, advanced with the army to Ispahan, took the city, and soon after, though the king had consented to be dethroned, and made over his crown to this Mahomood, he had him murdered and all the royal family, with the prime of the Persian nobility, except prince Thamas, one of Husein's sons, who had escaped and fled to the north of Persia. Mahomood, some time after, in the midst of his barbarities and excesses, was murdered by Efriss, one of his officers, who usurped the throne. Prince Thamas, having assembled an army, invited Nadir Kan into his service, who had obtained great reputation for his valour and conduct. He was the son of a Persian nobleman, on the frontiers of Usbeck Tartary, and his uncle, who was his guardian, keeping him out of possession of the castle and estate, which was his inheritance, he took to robbing the caravans; and having increased his followers to upwards of five hundred men, became the terror of that part of the country, and especially of his uncle, who had seized his estate. His uncle therefore endeavoured to be reconciled to him, and invited him to the castle, where he was
splendidly

splendidly entertained; but he ordered his followers to cut his uncle's throat in the night-time, and turn his people out of the castle. Prince Thamas, by giving him the command of his army, soon after met with all the success he could hope for. He defeated the usurper Esriff, put him to death, and recovered all the places the Turks and Russians had made themselves masters of, during the rebellion; and then prince Thamas seemed to be established on the throne; but Nadir Khan, to whom Thamas has given the name of Thamas Kouli Khan, that is, *the slave of Thamas*, thinking his services not sufficiently rewarded, and pretending that the king had a design against his life, or at least to set him aside, conspired against his sovereign, made him prisoner, and put him to death, as is supposed, after which he usurped the throne, styling himself Shah Nadir, or king Nadir.

He afterwards laid siege to Candahar, of which a son of Myrr Weis had possessed himself. While he lay at this siege, the court of the Great Mogul being distracted by factions, one of the parties invited Shah Nadir to come to their assistance, and betrayed the Mogul into his hands. Hereupon, having marched to Delhi, the capital of India, he summoned all the viceroys and governors of provinces to attend him, and bring with them all the treasure they could raise, and those that did not bring so much as he expected, he tortured and put to death. Having thus amassed the greatest treasure that ever prince was master of, he returned to Persia, giving the Mogul his liberty, on condition of resigning the provinces on the west side of the Indies to the crown of Persia. He afterwards made a conquest of Usbeck Tartary, and plundered Bochara, the capital city. Then he marched against the Daghistan Tartars, but lost great part of his army in the mountains, without fighting. He defeated the Turks in several engagements; but laying siege to Bagdad, was twice compelled to raise the siege. He proceeded to change the religion of Persia to that of Omar; hanged up the chief priests, put his own son to death, and was guilty of such cruelty, that he was at length assassinated by his own relations in 1747, who have been fighting for the crown ever since. Of late the contending parties were reduced to two, and in the spring of the year 1763, Kerim Khan made himself master of all Persia by the defeat of Fat Ali Khan. The highways were since safe, trade recovered its vigour, caravans are very frequent, and between fifteen and twenty thousand families of that kingdom, who had retired

retired to Bagdad, successively return to their own country. That vast empire, after being so long rent and ravaged by a crowd of petty tyrants, seems now to be on the point of recovering its ancient splendor. At first Kerim Kan declined the title of king, assuming only in his firmans, and on his coin, that of *sabelzaman*, which signifies *master of the present time*; but he since, in the month of October of the same year, convoked all the Persian grandees to meet him at Isfahan, in order to assist at his coronation at Tauris.

Persia is an absolute monarchy; the king's will is law in all cases; he judges of the lives and fortunes of his subjects, without regard to any other justice or law than his own pleasure, and that often leads him to extravagant severities. He has no established council, but is advised by such ministers as are most in favour; and the resolutions taken among the ladies in the haram frequently defeat the best laid designs. The crown is hereditary, excluding only the females; but the sons of a daughter are allowed to inherit. The laws of Persia exclude the blind from the throne; and this is the reason that the reigning prince usually orders the eyes of all the males of the royal family, of whom he entertains any jealousy, to be put out.

The prime minister is called *Attemaet Doulet*, which signifies *the director of the empire*, and also *Vizier Azem*, or *the great supporter of the empire*, as he alone almost sustains the whole weight of the kingdom. This minister's chief study is to please his master, to secure to himself an ascendant over his mind, and to avoid whatever may give him any uneasiness or umbrage. With this view he never fails to flatter him, to extol him above all the princes upon earth, and to throw a thick veil over every thing that might help to open his eyes, or discover to him the weakness of the state. He even takes very particular care to keep the king in utter ignorance, to hide from him, or at least to soften all unwelcome news, and above all to exalt immoderately every the least advantage he obtains over his enemies. By this sort of policy it is that this minister is able to aggrandize his family, and to raise his friends to the first posts in the empire; nor does he ever want a pretence for ruining some, and advancing others; and this is the easier for him to do, as all in employment are guilty of mal-administration. He has also a thousand opportunities of serving those in his interests, who give him a share in their plunder, and of sending them those royal vests, called *calaats*, by the officers of his house, who are greatly

*Govern-
ment of
Persia.*

*Prime mi-
nister.*

greatly rewarded for the same, which serves them instead of wages. The governors of provinces and cities endeavour, by underhand practices, to procure those presents of honour; nor do they spare any money to obtain them, to render their government more respectable, as none must dare complain of their misdemeanors, when they see them so much in favour at court as to obtain these robes. Thus it is, that the prime minister is in perpetual agitation to support himself, to raise some, and destroy others, according as he is actuated either by love or hatred. Yet, with all his arts and precautions, he can never be quiet in his mind; for it is impossible for him to be sure of the fidelity of any one person; those he has been kind to, being often the first to hasten his destruction, when they find that fortune has given him a shock. Infidelity and ingratitude have taken such deep root all over this country, that children make no scruple to cut off the ears, the nose, and even to cut the throat of their own parents, whenever the king commands it, and this with the base and mercenary view of possessing their posts in the government; a barbarity of which there are many instances. However, the prime ministers in Persia continue generally in their employment during life, or, if removed, are only banished to some city, where they spend the remainder of their life in a private station.

*Principal
officers of
state.*

The great officers of the state after the prime minister, are the Nadir, or grand-master of the household; the Mehter, or groom of the chamber, who is always a white eunuch; the Mir-akbor-bashe, or master of the horse; the Mir-shikar-bashe, or great huntsman and falconer; the Divan-beggi, or chief justice; there is a lieutenant of police, styled Deroga, in every town, but there may be an appeal from his sentence to the Divan-beggi: the Vackanuviez, or recorder of events, or first secretary of state; the Mussaufhe-elmenalick, or master of the accounts and finances of the kingdom; the Numes-hum-bashes, or king's chief physicians; the Shick-adafi-bashe, or inspector of the palace and regulator of rank at court; and the Khans, or governors of provinces, under whom are other governors, called Soltans, appointed also by the king.

*Ministers
in spiri-
tuals.*

The chief in spirituals is the Zedder, or great pontiff, who has the direction of all the wealth and emoluments consecrated to public worship or religious uses; under him are the Sheik el selom and Cadi, who decide all points of religion, and make all contracts, testaments,
and

and other public deeds ; they are appointed by the king in all the principal towns : and next to these are the Picnarnas, or directors of the prayers, and the Moullahs, or doctors of the law.

The king is exceeding rich in gold, plate, and jewels of all sorts ; and his store is continually increased by the presents made him by the Kams or great lords, which they often repeat, especially every new year's day. He has many lands, which he farms out at the rent of one fifth, third, or sometimes half the produce. He has the monopoly of silk, large subsidies from the several companies of tradesmen ; and all estates confiscated by delinquency, revert to the crown. These, together with many smaller taxes, raise his revenue to the amount of eight millions of toman per annum, each toman being worth about three pounds, six shillings, and eight pence of our money ; and indeed, the charge of his army is so great, his stables are so largely furnished with fine horses, some of which eat out of golden mangers ; his court is so numerous, his equipages so sumptuous, his attendants so many, his gardens so surprisingly spacious, and so elegantly laid out, his wives and concubines so many, and in short his grandeur in all respects of pomp and expence so remarkable, that it cannot be maintained with a less revenue.

*King's
riches and
revenues.*

The arms of the king of Persia are a lion couchant, looking at the sun as it rises over his back. His usual title is Shah, or Patshah, *the Disposer of Kingdoms*. To his titles are also added those of Sultan and Kham, the title of the Tartar sovereigns. He does not subscribe his name to acts of state, but the grant runs in this manner, viz. " This act (or edict) is given by him whom the universe obeys."

*His arms
and titles.*

There are three sorts of militia in Persia, which compose, as it were, so many distinct armies, namely, the Kortshies, the Goulans, and the Tasingtchies. The first are descended from an ancient, but foreign race, which have been famous on account of their courage. They encamp under tents, fight always on horseback, are well paid and kept, and often come to be promoted to the highest employments. There are generally about twenty-two thousand of them in pay. The second are slaves, or the children of slaves of all nations, but particularly Georgian renegadoes ; they serve the king very well, and also on horseback ; their number is about eighteen thousand. The third are a body of infantry, to the amount of forty or fifty thousand ; they are commonly picked out of the country

Forces.

country from amongst the most laborious and robust of the people.

Religion.

The religion of the Persians is the same in substance with that of the Turks, though no nations in the world hate one another so much on the account of religion as they do. The true ground of their division is, that the Turks pretend, that Abubeker, was the lawful successor of Mohammed, Omar the successor of Abubeker, Osman of Omar, and then Ali; whereas the Persians assert, that Ali succeeded Mohammed, or ought to have succeeded him, as being his son-in-law, and that the rest were but so many usurpers of his right. This is the reason that the Turks hold the Persians to be heretics. The Persians farther say, that Ali was the first of the twelve imans or priests whom they much honour, and who succeeded one another, and of whom the last, called Mahomet Mehedi Sahabremon, or *the master of times*, was snatched out of the hands of those who would have killed him, and translated as Enoch and Elias were; and that he will also come at the day of judgment to force the world to embrace the faith of Mohammed; that Jesus Christ will be his lieutenant, and will marry: for they look upon it as a great defect in his person, that he was not married. There is something very singular and curious in the religion and other practices of the Gaures, who are the remains of the ancient Persians; but we shall defer giving any account of them, till we examine the analogy which is supposed to be between them and the original inhabitants of Indostan.

*Trade,
manufac-
tures,
coins.*

The English and other nations trade with the Persians several ways, particularly by the gulf of Ormus at Gombron, by the way of Turkey, and by the way of Russia through the Caspian Sea. Woollen manufactures are exchanged with them for raw and wrought silks, carpets, camblets, leather, and other manufactures of the country; but the trade is carried on in European shipping, the Persians having scarce any ships of their own, and the Russians having the sole navigation of the Caspian Sea. The trade to Persia through Russia is disused at present, being prohibited by the court of Russia, who were apprehensive the English would teach the Persians to build ships, and dispute the navigation of the Caspian Sea with them. There is not a richer or more profitable trade carried on any where than between Gombron and Surat in the East Indies; and the English East India company frequently let out their ships to transport the merchandize of the

the Banians and Armenians from Persia to India; but there has been scarce any trade here since the civil wars began. The king of Persia is the chief merchant, and he usually employs his Armenian subjects to traffic for him in every part of the world. His agent must have the refusal of all merchandize before his subjects are permitted to trade. His greatest ministers do not think the business of a merchant beneath them. Thus it was before the civil war commenced. The most current money in Persia are the abassis, worth about one shilling and fourpence sterling; they are of the finest silver. An abassi is worth two mahmoudis, a mahmoudi two shais, and a shai ten single or five double casbeghis. These last pieces are of brass; the other three sorts of silver; for gold is not current in trade. A toman is a certain sum of money, and no coin, worth fifty abassis; and in Persia they generally reckon by tomans.

The Persian blood is generally thick, as maybe seen in the Gaures, the ancient Persians, who are homely, ill-shaped, dull, and have a rough skin and olive complexion. The same is observed in the provinces next the Indus; but in other parts of the kingdom, the Persian blood is now grown clearer by the mixture of the Georgian and Circassian; and the men are of a good stature, shape, and complexion, and the women handsome and well shaped, but still inferior to the Georgian. The men wear large turbans on their heads, some of them very rich, interwoven with gold and silver; a vest girt with a sash, and over it a loose garment something shorter, with sandals or slippers on their feet. The women's dress does not differ much from the men's, only their vests are longer, and they wear a stiffened cap on their heads, and their hair loose. The men are exceeding fond of riding, which they do every day, if it be but to a house in the same town; they wear pliant boots of yellow leather; and the furniture of their horses is immoderately rich, their stirrups generally silver; and, whether on foot or horseback, they wear a broad sword and dagger in their sash. They have also a particular passion for hunting, which is commonly managed by birds of prey. Their hawks are the best instructed of any in the world, and they are taught not only to fly at birds, but at hares, deer, and all manner of wild beasts. The Persians have been always esteemed a brave people, of great vivacity and quick parts, lovers of learning, and their polite men are upon a level with the politest in Europe. They excel more in poetry than
any

*Persons,
habits, ge-
nius, tem-
pers, &c.
of the
Persians.*

any other kind of literature, and astrologers are in as great reputation in Persia as the magi were formerly. Their books are all manuscripts, the art of printing having not yet been introduced among them; but they excel in writing, and have eight several hands. They write from the right to the left like the Arabs. In a kind of short hand they use the letters of the alphabet, and the same letters differently pointed will have twenty several significations. They are famed for nothing more than their humanity and hospitality. Their greatest foible is profuseness and vanity; whence the richness of their cloaths, and number of their servants and equipage, too often exceed their revenues, and bring them into difficulties. In short, they are born with as good natural parts as any other people; but few abuse them so much, becoming dissemblers, cheats, flatterers, and liars, to gratify, if possible, their eager bent to voluptuousness and a luxurious life. They drink coffee for breakfast, and at eleven dine upon melons, fruit, or milk. Their chief meal is in the evening, when they usually have a dish of pillo, consisting of boiled rice, fowls, or mutton, so over-done, that they pull the meat in pieces with their fingers, using neither knives, forks, nor spoons. Their meat is seasoned very high with salt and spices when they dress it; but they never salt up their meat, eating it the same day it is killed. They spread a cloth upon a carpet, and sit down cross-legged at their meals, washing both before and after they eat. They are frequently entertained with music, both vocal and instrumental, at their festivals, and girls dance to divert the company. Their usual drink is water or sherbet, wine being prohibited by their law; but several of them frequently break through this restraint, and none of them make any scruple of intoxicating themselves with opium. There is no place where women are so strictly guarded and confined as in Persia, especially in the courts or harems of their princes and great men. When the king's women remove, they are sent away in covered litters, with a strong guard; and all men are required to quit their habitations, and remove to a considerable distance from the places they pass through, on pain of death. There is no nobility in Persia, nor any respect given to a man on account of his family, except to those who are of the blood of their great prophet or patriarchs; but every man is esteemed according to the post he possesses; and when he is dismissed, he loses his honour, and is no longer distinguished from the vulgar. The Arabic is the learned language of the Persians;

siens; the Turkish is usually spoken at court, and in the provinces adjoining to Turkey; in other parts they generally speak the Persian tongue, which is a modern language, and much of the same date with their religion.

S E C T. VIII.

Of Great Tartary and Asiatic Russia.

THIS country, called Great Tartary, to distinguish it from the Lesser Tartary in Europe, is the ancient Scythia and Serica. It lies between the 53d and 138th deg. of longitude east from London, and between the 40th and 80th of north latitude; which makes it about four thousand miles in length, and three thousand four hundred in breadth. The soil of so extensive a country cannot be expressed in general; the climate is so various, that the produce of the earth must be different in the several districts; but, according to the best accounts, the southern parts would be fruitful if duly cultivated. It is true, that even there the land is much encumbered with mountains, so that we hear of no profitable commodity brought from thence but rhubarb, which it seems grows there very freely.

*Situation
and extent.*

*Soil and
produce.*

The people are an offspring of the northern Scythians, who came down southwards above five hundred years ago, and, like the Goths in Europe, and Saracens in Africa, carried all before them. They conquered Persia and a great part of Asia Minor; and though beaten thence, they found their way westward, and established a monarchy in Taurica Chersonesus, which continued above three hundred years. That the Tartars are of Scythian original, is evident from their sentiments and manners at this day. The Scythians sacrificed to their gods the prisoners taken in war: the Tartars do not indeed deprive their prisoners of life, but they make death preferable, by selling them to masters that equal themselves in cruelty: the ancient Scythians lived on mare's milk, applied themselves to the feeding of cattle, and neglected tillage; they had no other habitations but tilted waggons, which were drawn from pasture to pasture as herbage failed and necessity required; their cloathing was the skins of beasts; they made use of poisoned arrows; to cross a river, they filled sacks with cork, on which they placed themselves, and were drawn over by horses which they held by the tail; they had no

*Inhabit-
ants.*

written laws, but administered justice according to the natural dictates of reason : these customs still subsist, with little variation, among the Tartars. There was one very singular custom among the Scythians : when two friends wanted to swear a lasting friendship, they made incisions in their fingers, and received the blood in a cup ; both dipped the points of their swords in it, and, lifting them to their heads, eagerly sucked it : when the modern Tartars take an oath, they dip their sabres in water, which they afterwards drink. The barbarity of some of their customs appears to have been softened by time ; but one thing which has remained invariable in the character of these people, is their rage of invading the neighbouring nations upon every opportunity that offers, and often of falling upon one another, when they are confined in their own country by superior force or fear. Their wars, their incursions, their ravages, differ in nothing from those of the Scythians. We may apply to them what the prophet Jeremiah said, speaking of the irruption of their ancestors into India *, “ Their chariots are as a whirlwind ; their horses are swifter than eagles, and their quiver is an open sepulchre.”

Asia, as before observed, has often felt that they have lost nothing of the brutal impetuosity of their ancestors. Their success is less surprising than that continuance of their valour, which, though not always sufficient to preserve their conquests, still kept up in them a desire to recover them. Thus, though expelled China in 1368, after possessing it above a century, they never ceased their efforts to recover it ; and in 1644, reduced it in such a manner, that they have no reason to apprehend a second expulsion. The exploits of Tamerlane, the chief of one of their rulers, are well known. He was equal to Cæsar in courage, and not inferior to Alexander in good fortune. He conquered the Indies, subdued Persia, vanquished the Turks, and ravaged all Egypt. His name and reputation have reached nations to whom his country is still unknown.

*Tartars
divided
into three
powers.*

The Tartars are generally divided into three distinct powers : the first are those known by the name of Tartars ; the second are the Calmucks ; and the third the Mongals. The Tartars, properly so called, live to the west of the Caspian sea. The most considerable of them are the Usbecks, the Kara Kalpacks, the Nagais who are subject

to Russia, the Baskirs who also hold of that empire, and the Daghestans who depend on no power and are more savage and untractable than any of the rest. The Nagais, who at present occupy the lands of Astracan, between the Jaïck and the Wolga, and the Baskirs, who are situated in the eastern part of the kingdom of Casan, between the Wolga and the river Kama; formerly received tribute from Russia, which the great duke of Muscovy carried to them annually on his own horses. He was obliged to go on foot, followed by the principal persons of his court, to meet the persons who came to demand this tribute, and who were the poorest and most wretched of all their tribes. John, or Iwan, duke of Muscovy, surnamed the Great, was the first who, to free himself from this shameful mark of servitude, attempted to bring the Tartars under subjection. His son Basil continued to reduce them; but the final blow was given them by John Basilides, a prince detested for his barbarity, but resolute and valiant. He extended his power over the most distant of their hords. The khan of the Calmucks, who occupy a great part of the country which lies between the Mongal and the Wolga, is so powerful, that it is said he can bring an army of a hundred thousand men into the field. There is always a body of them in the Russian army. They are rather short than tall; but strong, robust, courageous, and inured to fatigue. Their complexion is tawny, their faces flat, and their noses sunk to a level with their cheeks; their nostrils are the only parts that are striking, because larger than their eyes; and these are so small, that they would be scarce perceptible if they were not very black and sparkling. They have scarce any beard; and their hair, of which they wear only a tuft on the crown of the head, is rough like a horse's mane. They wear a round bonnet, with a border of fur, in the Polish manner, and a kind of loose coat of sheep-skins, which comes down to the middle of their legs. They serve only on horseback; their arms are a bow which is larger, and arrows which are longer than usual. It is said, that their arrows are so sharp-pointed, and that they make them fly with such force, that they will pierce a man through. They carry also a musquet, which hangs by their side, and a lance, which they handle with great dexterity. They are all Pagans; the name Calmucks is a kind of nickname given them by the Mohammedan Tartars, with which they are much offended. They want to be called Mogouls. Those Tartars who are at present

called Mungals, are situated, on one side, between these last people and the sea of Japan, and on the other between China and Siberia.

*Kingdom of
Astracan.*

The kingdom of Astracan begins in the 43d deg. and a half of latitude, under the finest of climates, and ends towards the 50th, comprehending about as many degrees of longitude as latitude; bounded on one side by the Caspian Sea, on the other by the mountains of Circassia, and still reaching beyond the Caspian Sea along Mount Caucasus; watered by the great river Wolga, the Jaïck, and several other rivers, between which, as our countryman the engineer Perry pretends, canals may be formed, which, serving as a bed to inundations, would produce the same effect as the channels of the Nile, by increasing the fertility of the land; but this fine country to the right and left of the Wolga and Jaïck, was infested, rather than inhabited by the Tartars, who never cultivated any thing, and who have always lived as strangers on the earth.

Engineer Perry, employed here by Peter the Great, found vast deserts covered with pastures, different sorts of pulse, cherry, and almond trees. Wild sheep, which yielded excellent nourishment, fed in these solitudes. To second therein nature, it was necessary to begin by taming and civilizing the men of these climes.

This kingdom of Astracan is a part of the ancient Capshak, conquered by Gengis Kan, and afterwards by Tamerlane. The dominions of these Tartars extended as far as Moscow. The czar John Basilides, as before mentioned, delivered his country from the Tartar yoke, and added the kingdom of Astracan to his other conquests in the year 1554. Astracan is the boundary of Asia and Europe, and may trade with either, transporting by the Wolga the merchandize brought by the Caspian Sea. This was one of the grand projects of Peter the Great. It was partly executed by him. An entire suburb of Astracan is inhabited by Indians.

Oremburg. At the south-east of the kingdom of Astracan is a small country newly formed, called Oremburg. A town of the same name was built in 1734, on the banks of the river Jaïck. The face of this country is uneven and rugged by some branches of Mount Caucasus. Forts raised at equal distances defend the passage of the mountains, and the rivers that descend from them. It is in this region, formerly inhabited, that the Persians, for some years past, have been laying up and secreting from rapacious robbers, their

their effects that escaped the civil wars. The town of Oremburg is become the refuge of the Persians and their fortunes, and has increased by their calamities. The Indians and people of the Great Bukaria come to traffick there, so that it may be said to be a mart for Asia.

Beyond the Wolga and the Jaïck, towards the north, is the kingdom of Casan, which, together with Astracan, fell to the lot of a son of Gengis Kan, and afterwards of a son of Tamerlane. This is also a conquest of John Basilides. It is still peopled by a great number of Mohammedan Tartars. This great country extends as far as Siberia. It was formerly rich and flourishing, and still retains some opulence. A province of this kingdom, called the Great Permia, and afterwards Solikam, was the staple of Persian merchandize and Tartar furs. A great quantity of the coins of the first caliphs, and some gold idols of the Tartars, have been found in Permia; but these monuments of former wealth were found in the midst of poverty, and in deserts, where no vestiges of commerce could be discovered. Such revolutions happen but too soon and easily in a barren country, since they have happened in the most fertile.

Governments of Casan and the Great Permia.

The famous Swedish prisoner Stralemberg, who turned to so good an account his misfortunes, after the battle of Pultowa, and who examined all those great tracts of land with so much attention, is the first who made probable a fact which could never gain credit, concerning the ancient commerce of these regions. Pliny and Pomponius Mela relate, that, in the time of Augustus, a king of the Suevi made a present to Metellus Celer of some Indians, cast by a storm on the coasts near the Elbe. How should the inhabitants of India navigate the German seas? This adventure appeared fabulous to all our moderns, especially since the commerce of our hemisphere changed by the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope. But formerly it was not more strange to see an Indian trade into the northern countries of the West, than to see a Roman pass into India by Arabia. The Indians went into Persia, embarked on the sea of Hyrcania, sailed up the Rha, which is the Wolga, proceeded as far as the great Permia, by Kama, and from thence might embark on the North Sea, or Baltic. There have been in all times enterprising men. The Tyrians undertook and succeeded in more astonishing voyages.

If, after having passed in review all these extensive provinces, you cast your eye to the east, there again the

limits of Europe and Asia are confounded. A new name should seem requisite for this great part of the world. The ancients divided into Asia, Europe, and Africa their known world; they had not seen the tenth part of it; and this is the reason, when the Palus Mæotis is passed, that it is not known where Europe ends and Asia begins. All beyond Mount Taurus received the vague appellation of Scythia, and afterwards that of Tartary. It would be proper, perhaps, to call by the name of Artic Land, or Land of the North, all the country that extends from the Baltic to the confines of China, as the name of Austral Land is given by some to that part of the world, not less great, situated under the antarctic pole, and which makes the counterpoise of the globe.

*Government of
Siberia.*

From the frontiers of the provinces of Archangel, Rensan, Astracan, Siberia extends to the east, with farther tracts of land as far as the sea of Japan; it touches the south of Russia by Mount Caucasus; from thence to the country of Kamschatka about twelve hundred common leagues are reckoned; and from South Tartary, which serves it as a boundary, as far as the Frozen Sea, there are about four hundred, which is the least breadth of this country. Siberia produces the richest furs, and it was this that occasioned its discovery in 1563.

*Discovery
and conquest of
Siberia.*

A Don Cossack, by name Yarmak, being obliged by some accident to leave his native country, and having no means of subsistence, betook himself, with a few accomplices, to robbing on the highway. He soon became famous and powerful, for he robbed only the rich, and, by a generosity uncommon in such a character, liberally bestowed on such as were in want. He never killed, or even hurt any person, unless compelled to such outrages in his own defence. This behaviour so raised his reputation, that all the idle fellows in the country enlisted themselves in his gang, and he became at last so troublesome, that the governors of the southern provinces sent out troops to apprehend him; but he being informed of their design, withdrew from the land, and procuring boats upon the Wolga, commenced pirate. Being attacked here also, he was forced to cross the Caspian Sea, and shelter himself on the Persian shore, where he passed for a merchant. Being again discovered, he was obliged by the Persians to quit their coast; and now his only refuge was to return to the Wolga, where he behaved with great circumspection, often lurking in woods and villages, and being in no want of money, he paid liberally for every

every thing he needed. Foreseeing, however, that such a numerous gang could not be long concealed, he took the resolution of leaving the Wolga, and steered his course up the river Kama, at that time little frequented by the Russians or any other nation; here he hoped to find at least a safe retreat during the winter. Yarmak, therefore, with his followers, amounting to two hundred, continued their voyage up the Kama, till they were stopped by the ice, at no great distance from a large village. The inhabitants, alarmed at the sight of so many armed men, whom they were not able to oppose, gave them a hospitable reception. Yarmak demanded only provisions and winter-quarters for his men, promising to leave them unmolested in the spring. In consequence of this declaration, he and his followers passed the winter very quietly in that remote place; but apprehensive, at the approach of summer, of being discovered by the government, and uncertain what course to steer, it was at last determined to cross the mountains of Verchaturia, and go to the eastward, in hopes of finding some uninhabited country, at least a safe retreat.

Having passed the mountains, they arrived at the river Tur, and, finding it navigable, soon made a sufficient number of canoes for the whole gang. After rowing for some days down the Tur, they discovered several villages of Mohammedan Tartars, who were surprised at the sight of such a number of strangers, of whom they had before never so much as heard. Yarmak having got what intelligence he could procure of the situation and government of the country, pursued his voyage to the river Tobol, where he found the towns populous, and the lands well cultivated. His approach alarmed the king of the Tartars, who assembled a numerous body of horse and foot, armed with bows and arrows, lances and other such weapons, with whom our adventurer had many skirmishes, and defeated great multitudes by means of his fire-arms, which had never before been known in those parts. The poor Tartars were as much amazed and terrified at the sight of the Russians and their arms, as the inhabitants of Mexico on the arrival of the Spaniards in America; to which Siberia may, in many respects be compared.

Yarmak, finding his enemies daily more numerous the nearer he approached the residence of the Tartar king; having also lost many of his men in continual encounters, and spent the greatest part of his ammunition; knowing, besides, of no place of safety where he might pass the

winter, which is both long and severe in this quarter, at last determined to retreat. He therefore steered his course to the west, up the Tobol and Tur rivers. The Tartars gave him no rest, but harrassed him perpetually from the banks. He himself, and a few more, escaped with a considerable booty, and returned to the village where they wintered before. The inhabitants, on seeing the rich furs and other spoils, gave them a welcome reception; and Yarmak did not forget to dispense his favours liberally among those who had entertained him in his distress, when he fled from justice.

Our adventurer had now time to reflect on his miserable circumstances. He considered, that his lurking in these parts, though remote from any town, could not be long kept a secret; to make another attempt against the Tartars with a handful of men, ill provided with arms and ammunition, might perhaps be ruinous, and certainly unsuccessful. He therefore resolved to submit himself to the czar's clemency, in hopes of obtaining a pardon for himself and his accomplices, on condition of pointing out the way to a rich and easy conquest of a country which he had discovered. The proposal was made at court by a friend, and was of too great importance to be neglected. In short, Yarmak was brought to Moscow, under a safe-conduct, where he communicated the whole affair. He begged his majesty's pardon, and asked a certain number of troops, which he promised to lead to a glorious conquest. His majesty granted him a pardon, approved of the expedition, and gave orders for the troops to attend him. They marched to Solikamski, where they passed the winter in making preparations for their enterprize.

During this interval Yarmak behaved with surprising prudence and activity, and discovered himself to be a person of uncommon genius. He collected such of his former followers as remained, and formed them into a company, in whom he could confide on all occasions.

At the proper season the troops set out towards Siberia. On coming into the inhabited parts of the country, they found many straggling parties of Tartars in arms, ready to oppose them, and a number of boats upon the rivers, full of armed men; the king of the Tartars himself was on board one of these vessels. This expedition was of short duration, and fully answered the expectations of the Russians. The Tartars in the boats being pursued by the Russians, a battle ensued on the river Irtysh. Yarmak observing the king's barge, ordered his crew to board her, which

which he endeavouring to do at the head of his men, jumped short, fell into the river, and was drowned, to the great grief of all his followers. Thus fell poor Yarmak! Notwithstanding this misfortune the Russians gained a complete victory. The brave king of the Tartars lost his life also in the action. His son, and the rest of the royal family, were taken prisoners, and sent to Moscow, where they were honourably received by the czar, and treated according to their quality. The prince had an extensive property granted him in Russia, which the family now enjoys, together with the title of Sibirsky Czarowitz, or prince of Siberia.

It was not in the reign of the czar Fedor Iwanowitz, but in that of Iwan Basilides, in the sixteenth century, that a private person, of the neighbourhood of Archangel, a man rich for his condition and country, perceived that men of extraordinary figure, clothed after a manner till then unknown in his part of the country, and speaking a language which none understood, came down regularly every year a river that falls into the Duina, bringing with them to market martens and black foxes, which they exchanged for nails and bits of glass, as the savages of America first gave their gold to the Spaniards. He had them followed by his children and servants as far as their country: they were Samoieds, a people that appear like the Laplanders, but not of the same race. They are ignorant, as the Laplanders, of the use of bread; they have, as they, the assistance of rein-deer, which they yoke to their sledges. They live in caverns and huts in the midst of the snow; but nature has otherwise set some very distinguishing marks between this species of men and that of the Laplanders: their upper maxilla, or jaw, more advanced, is on a level with their nose, and their ears are higher up; the men and women have hair only on the head; the nipple of their breast is of a black ebony colour. Neither sex of the Laplanders have any of these marks; so that it is without any just foundation that the species of the Laplanders and Samoieds have been confounded. There are many more different races of men than are thought of; those of the Samoieds and Hottentots seems to be the two extremes of our continent; and, if we attend to the black breasts of the Samoied women, and the apron nature has given the Hottentot women, and which descends to the half of their thighs, we shall have some idea of the varieties of our animal species.

*How the
Samoieds
were discovered.*

The

The morality of the Samoieds is equally singular with their physics. They pay no worship to the Supreme Being: their religion is a sort of Manicheism, or rather the ancient religion of the Magi, in the one point of acknowledging a good and bad principle. The horrid climate they dwell in seems, in some respects, to excuse this belief, so ancient among so many people, and so natural to the ignorant and unfortunate. Theft and murder are not heard of among them; being almost without passions, they are without injustice. They have no terms in their language to express vice and virtue. Their extreme simplicity has not yet permitted them to form abstracted notions; sentiment alone directs them; and it is, perhaps, an incontestible proof that men love justice by instinct, when their passions do not blind them. Some of these savages were persuaded to suffer themselves to be conducted to Moscow; every thing there struck them with admiration; the emperor they regarded as their god, and submitted to give him yearly an offering of two fables per each inhabitant. Some colonies were soon established beyond the Oby and the Irtysh, and even forts were built there. A Cossack was sent into the country in 1595, and conquered it for the czars, with some soldiers and artillery, as Cortez subdued Mexico, but he scarce conquered any thing more than deserts.

Tobolskoy
capital of
Siberia.

At the confluence of the rivers Irtysh and Tobol, a small habitation was found by the Russians, which they converted, since their conquest, into the city of Tobolskoy, the capital of Siberia, at present considerable. It contains about fifteen thousand inhabitants. The clergy consists of about fifty monks, or priests. There was once a good trade from this place to China by caravans; but the mutual knavery of the Russians and Chinese merchants soon reduced it to a languishing state; and some differences which arose between the two powers have since totally destroyed it. These differences were occasioned by a revolution which happened among the Zungore Calmucks, after the death of Galdan Tcherin, in 1746. Galdan Tcherin was khan of the nation which inhabited that part of Northern Tartary which is situated between Siberia and China. This nation admitted no sovereign but its khan, and upon the death of Galdan Tcherin, a civil war broke out among several competitors to succeed him. The Chinese, who dreaded the power of this nation, which was become formidable to all its neigh-

Revolution
among the
Calmucks.

neighbours, contrived first to weaken it on this occasion, by favouring each of the competitors by turns, and then to fall upon the conqueror, and destroy his power at once. The name of this unhappy prince was Amoursfaman; and the wretched remains of this once mighty nation, consisting of about twenty thousand families, took shelter under the protection of Russia, upon the banks of the Wolga. Amoursfaman, after having wandered from place to place, at last retired to the frontiers of Siberia, in 1757, where he died of the small-pox in 1760. The Chinese, as soon as they heard he had retired to Siberia, demanded that he should be delivered up, or, as the Russians say, that he should be confined for life. He continued for some time at Tobolsky before his death, and his body was sent to the frontiers of Siberia, whither the Chinese sent commissioners more than once to examine it. Two Calmuck ambassadors, who had been sent to Petersburg whilst Amoursfaman was still living, learnt, on their return to Tobolskoy, that their nation was no longer existing.

Who would believe it, that this country was, for a long time, the abode of the same Huns who ravaged all as far as Rome, under Attila, and that these Huns came from the north of China? The Usbeck Tartars succeeded the Huns, and the Russians the Usbecks. These savage countries were disputed, after the manner that nations exterminated each other for more fertile. Siberia was formerly better peopled than it is, especially towards the south; some sepulchral monuments and ruins are a sufficient argument that it was so.

All this part of the world, from the sixtieth degree, or thereabouts, to the mountains, eternally frozen, which bound the north seas, resemble in nothing the regions of the temperate zone. The earth does not afford the same plants and animals, nor the lakes and rivers the same fish. The ridge of the Verchaturia mountains, which may be considered as a branch of Mount Caucasus, commencing to the southward, and separating Asia from Europe quite to the Frozen Sea, is no where higher than from fifty to eighty fathoms; but the declivity is very steep, and the summit is covered with pine, birch, and fir. The way over these mountains is very frightful, and by night extremely dangerous; for if the sledge deviates ever so little from the beaten track, the unfortunate traveller will inevitably be buried in a gulf of snow. Here there is seldom any sign of a more clement season, not

Verchaturia mountains.

so much as by the flight of a bird ; for even the pies and crows, which abound through all Russia, abandon these horrid deserts, where nature herself seems benumbed, and it is only by the traces of the sledge that the country is known to be inhabited. The gloom of desolation surrounds it on every side, and a horrid silence, which is never broken but by the outcries of those that suffer from the perils of the way. The inhabitants are shut up in their hovels nine months in the year ; the snow appears upon the mountains in the beginning of September, and so great a quantity descends in a short time afterwards, as to leave scarce any traces of a habitation upon them. The inhabitants are then obliged to break a way through it, and it seldom begins to thaw there till the middle of April ; and though it gives somewhat sooner in the plain, it does not totally disappear till the end of May ; so that the severity of the winter is suspended only three months in the year, during which time, however, they sow rye, oats, barley, and pease, which they get in by the end of August ; but none of them are perfectly ripe.

*Inhabitants
described.*

The inhabitants of this country, for the most part, profess the religion of the Greek church, but with a fanaticism that seems gradually to increase with the distance from the capital. As their state and situation do not admit the indulgence of artificial wants, their desires are necessarily few : they have neither manufacture nor commerce ; their provision is very bad, and therefore easily procured, consisting of dry or stinking fish, pease, and a coarse black kind of bread, made of rye ; their drink is a wretched kind of beer, and a liquor they call quas, which is no other than water fermented with bran, and then mixed with a small quantity of meal. They live in total idleness and inactivity, shut up in their stoves, the extreme nastiness of which is not to be conceived. They are, however, fond of their condition, and hate the thoughts of stirring out of their dunghill, especially to bear arms ; but, if forced into the service, brandy, and the fear of punishment, will make them tolerable soldiers. The unwholsomeness and inconvenience of their hovels are greatly increased by the severity of the winter, which prevents their communication with the fresh air ; their windows are seldom more than a foot wide, and six inches high ; and they are also deprived of the light of the sun all the while he is passing through the southern signs ; nor have they any artificial light but by splinters of birchwood, which they set on fire, and stick up in the chinks of

of the floor: this practice is, indeed, common through all Russia, and frequently causes fires, which almost immediately spread over half a town, as the houses are all built of wood, except in the cities and principal towns. But, notwithstanding all this inactivity, confinement, and nastiness, they enjoy robust and uninterrupted health; so effectually does perpetual temperance counter-balance all that can weigh against health and life. There is scarce one among them that is weakly or deformed, and their manner of education secures to them this good fortune. The child, as soon as born, is laid upon a heap of straw or old rags, in a basket, where it sprawls about, and stretches its limbs, without any restraint, it is nourished with milk by means of a horn which is fitted to a cow's-teats, but sometimes suckled by the mother; the basket is hung at the end of a long elastic pole, so that it may easily be put in motion, and the child rocked as in a cradle; but before it can go alone, it is placed upon the ground, where it rolls about at pleasure, till it learns first to stand, and then to totter along, with nothing to cover it but a shirt, which scarce reaches to the middle of the thigh. By this management their children walk sooner than ours can stand alone, and as soon as they are able are suffered to run about, and, at the end of the winter, are playing in the road in the midst of the snow, while the weather is still so cold, that the traveller is afraid of getting out of his sledge, though covered with fur from head to foot. They are of a large stature, extremely muscular and strong, and live longer than the inhabitants of any other known part of world. This, however, is not because their situation, upon the whole, is favourable to life in the tender years of infancy, but is rather the reverse; for all the children who are not strong by constitution, die soon, and none are reared but those who are born with the greatest natural advantages. More than two-thirds of the children that are born here die in their infancy, and it is common to find but three or four alive, in families that have had sixteen or eighteen. Many other causes concur gradually to depopulate the villages that are scattered through this vast desert. The small-pox frequently carries off half the inhabitants of one of these hamlets at a time, and sometimes a greater proportion; the scurvy is also very fatal among them; and where they can procure spirituous liquors, the inroads of disease and mortality are in proportion to their want of the advantages which makes intemperance less fatal in other

other places. The venereal disease also makes great havock among these unhappy wretches, to whom the method of cure is wholly unknown ; it prevails so much in Siberia and Northern Tartary, that there is great reason to believe it will at length depopulate the country. The manners of the people of Tobolskoy are rather more corrupt than those that live dispersed in the country. The women of all ranks and ages paint here, and are in general handsome, but have not that feminine softness which is the principal charm of the sex.

*Ostiacks
and
Burates.*

Below the country of the Samoieds, along the river Oby, lies that of Ostiacks : they are quite different from the Samoieds, except that, like them, and the men of the primitive ages of the world, they are hunters, shepherds, and fishermen. Some of them are without religion, as living separate ; others, composing hords, have a kind of worship, and make vows to the principal object of their wants : they adore a sheep's-skin, because no other sort of cattle is more necessary to them. The same way the ancient Egyptian husbandmen made choice of an ox, to adore, in the emblem of this animal, the divinity that produced it for man's use. The Ostiacks have also other idols, of which neither the origin nor worship does deserve our attention, any more than their adorers. Some of them have been converted to Christianity about the year 1712 ; but they are such Christians as the grossest peasants, without knowing what they are. Several authors pretend, that this people came originally from the Great Permia ; but this Great Permia is almost a desert. Why should its inhabitants settle so far off, and so indifferently ? These obscurities are not worth our researches. Every people that has not cultivated the arts, ought to be condemned to oblivion. It is particularly among these Ostiacks, and the Burates and Jakutes, their neighbours, that the ivory is often found in the ground, of which the origin cannot be accounted for without having recourse to the universal deluge. Some believe it to be a fossil ivory, others, the teeth of a sort of elephant, whereof the race is destroyed. In what country do we not find natural productions, which equally astonish and confound philosophy ? Several mountains of these countries abound with the amianthus, or that incombustible flax, of which sometimes cloth is made, and sometimes a kind of paper. The Burates, another people not yet made Christians, live to the south of the Ostiacks ; and eastward are several hords not yet entirely subjected.

None

None of these people have the least knowledge of the calendar; they reckon their time by snows, and not by the apparent course of the sun. As it snows regularly, and for a long time, every winter, they say, I am so many snows old, as we say so many years old.

The Swedish officer Strålemborg, who had been made prisoner at the battle of Pultowa, and spent fifteen years in Siberia, all parts of which he had visited, says, that there are still some remains of an ancient people, whose skin is partly coloured and spotted, and that he had seen men of that race. This fact has been confirmed by some Russians born at Tobolskoy. It seems that the variety of the human species has much diminished; we find but few of these singular races, which, probably, others have exterminated: for example, there are very few of the white Moors, whereof one was presented, some time ago, to the Academy of Sciences, at Paris. The same may be said of several animals, whose species is become very rare.

This country was called Siberia, only since its conquest by the Russians, from a Slavonic word, signifying a *prison*, having been made such, on account of its extreme coldness and barrenness. The prisoners of state who are banished here, some during life, some for a term of years, according to their crimes, or pleasure of the czars, either without any, or with a very small allowance, as, perhaps, a penny a-day, are obliged to shoot for their living, or starve. They are, besides, obliged to bring in weekly a certain quantity of furs, as a tribute to the czar, else they are severely punished by task-masters purposely set over them. They must also be very careful, that the furs have no holes in them; and this makes them exceeding dexterous in shooting these creatures only in the head, and with a single ball.

Siberia, whence denominated.

All the southern parts of these countries are peopled by numerous hords of Tartars. The ancient Turks passed out of this Tartary to conquer all the territories they are now in possession of. The Calmucks, the Monguls, are the same Scythians, who, headed by Madies, seized upon the Upper Asia, and conquered Cyaxares, king of the Medes. These also are they whom Gengis Khan and his children led afterwards into Germany, and who formed the Mogul empire under Tamerlane. These people are a great example of the changes that have happened among all nations. Some of their hords, far from being formidable

able, are become vassals of Russia. Such is a nation of Calmucks that dwells between Siberia and the Caspian Sea. Here were found, in 1720, a subterraneous house of stone, urns, lamps, ear-pendants, an equestrian statue of an Oriental prince, with a diadem on his head; two women sitting on thrones; a roll of manuscripts, sent by Peter the Great, to the Academy of Inscriptions at Paris, and found to be in the language of Tibet. All these were illustrious testimonies that the arts once inhabited this country, now barbarous; and they were also sufficient proofs of what Peter the Great was often heard to say, that the arts had made the tour of the world.

*Kamt-
schatka
described.*

Kamtschatka is the last province of Siberia. It was long known by that name to the geographers of former times: but so little were they acquainted with its situation, that they believed it to be joined to Yesso; whereas a large sea, interspersed with many islands, lies between the two countries. At present, Kamtschatka is known to be that great peninsula which makes the boundary of Asia to the north-east, stretching from north to south about seven degrees thirty minutes. It begins at the rivers Pustaio and Anapho, lying in the latitude of fifty-nine degrees thirty minutes. The first runs into the Penschinska Sea, and the other to the eastward. At these places the isthmus is so narrow, that the sea may, in fair weather, be seen on both sides from the hills in the middle. As the country runs broader towards the north, this place may be reckoned the isthmus that joins the peninsula to the main land.

The natives of this country are divided into three different people: the Kamtschatkans, Koreki, and Kuriles. The Kamtschatkans live upon the south-side of the promontory of Kamtschatka; the Koreki inhabit the northern parts on the coast of the Penschinska Sea, and round the eastern ocean, almost to Anadir; the Kuriles inhabit the islands in that sea, reaching as far as those of Japan. They are all as wild as the country itself. Some of them have no fixed habitations, but wander from place to place with their herds of rein-deer; others have settled habitations, and reside upon the banks of the rivers, and the sea-shore, living upon fish and sea-animals, and such herbs as grow upon the shore. The former dwell in huts, covered with deer-skins; the latter in places dug out of the earth; both in a very barbarous manner. Their dispositions and tempers are rough; and they are entirely ignorant of letters or religion.

It

It is very probable, that the Kamtschatkans lived formerly in Mungalia, beyond the river Amur, and made one people with the Mungals, which appears from their having several words common to the Mungal Chinese language, and their terminations in ong, ing, oang, chin, cha, kfi, kfung. But not to insist upon the language only, both are of a low stature, swarthy, have black hair, a broad face, sharp nose, eyes sunk in, eye-brows small and thin, a hanging belly, slender legs and arms; and both are remarkable for cowardice, boasting, and slavishness to people who use them hard, and for their obstinacy and contempt of those who treat them with gentleness.

Before the Russian conquest, they lived in perfect freedom, having no chief, being subject to no law, nor paying any taxes; the old men, or those who were remarkable for their bravery, bearing the principal authority in their villages, though none had any right to command, or inflict punishment. They resemble the other inhabitants of Siberia; but differ in this, that their faces are not so long as the other Siberians, their cheeks stand more out, their teeth are thick, their mouth large, their stature middling, and their shoulders broad, particularly those who inhabit the sea-coast.

Their manner of living is slovenly to the last degree; they never wash their hands or face, nor cut their nails; they eat out of the same dish with the dogs, which they never wash; every thing about them stinks of fish; they never comb their heads, but both men and women plait their hair in two locks, binding the ends with small cords. When any hair starts out, they sew it with threads to make it lie close; by this means, they have such a quantity of vermin, that they scrape them off by handfuls, and are nasty enough to eat them. Those that have not a sufficient stock of natural hair wear false locks, and sometimes as much as weigh ten pounds, which makes their heads look like a haycock.

They have extraordinary notions of God, of sins, and good actions. They have filled almost every place in heaven and earth with different spirits, which they both worship and fear more than God, because, in case of troubles and misfortunes, they curse and blaspheme him. Their chief happiness consists in idleness, and gratifying their natural lusts and appetites. They have no notion of riches, fame, or honour; therefore covetousness, ambition, and pride, are unknown among them. Their

trade is likewise not so much calculated for the acquisition of riches, as for procuring the necessities and conveniences of life. They sell the Koreki fables, fox, and white dog skins, dried mushrooms, or such trifles; and receive in exchange, cloths made of deer-skins and other hides. Among themselves they exchange what they abound with for what they want, as dogs, boats, dishes, troughs, nets, hemp, yarn, and provisions. This kind of barter is carried on under a great shew of friendship; for, when one wants any thing that another has, he goes freely to visit him, and without any ceremony makes known his wants, though, perhaps, he never had any acquaintance with that person before. The landlord is obliged to behave according to the custom of the country, and gives his guest whatever he has occasion for. He afterwards returns the visit, and must be received in the same manner; so that both parties have their wants supplied.

Though their manner of living is most nasty, and their actions most stupid, yet they think themselves the happiest people in the world, and look upon the Russians who are settled among them with contempt: however, this notion begins to change at present; for the old people, who are confirmed in their customs, drop off, and the young ones, being converted to the Christian religion, adopt the customs of the Russians, and despise the barbarity and superstition of their ancestors.

In every ostrog, or large village, by order of her late imperial majesty Elizabeth, is appointed a chief, who is sole judge in all causes, except those of life and death; and not only these chiefs, but even the common people, have their chapels for public worship. Schools are also erected in almost every village, to which the Kamtschatkans send their children with pleasure. By these means their barbarity, very probably, will, in a short time, be rooted out.

In a late expedition of the Russians to this country, the sea-officers delineated exactly all the eastern coast of Kamtschatka, as far as the Cape of Tchukotskoi, all the western to the Penchinska gulf, and from Ochotokoy to the river Amur; they described the islands lying between Japan and Kamtschatka, and also those between Kamtschatka and America. At the same time, the gentlemen of the Academy undertook to determine the situation of Kamtschatka by astronomical observations, and to remark every thing worthy of notice in the civil and natural history of the country and places adjacent.

A Cossac

A Cossack officer went first by land from Siberia to Kamtschatka, in 1701, by order of Peter the Great; who, after the unfortunate affair of Narva, still extended his care from one extremity of the continent to the other. Afterwards, in 1725, some time before death surprised him in the midst of his great projects, he sent the Danish captain Bering with express orders to go by the sea of Kamtschatka to the land of America, if the enterprize was practicable. Bering could not succeed in his first navigation. The empress Anne sent him again in 1733: Spengenberg, a captain of a ship, who was appointed to keep company in this voyage, set out the first from Kamtschatka, but could not put to sea till 1739, by reason of the time required to arrive at the port where they were to embark, and build and fit out ships with all necessaries. Spengenberg penetrated as far as the north of Japan, through a streight formed by a long chain of isles, and returned, without any farther discovery than this passage.

*Expedition
for disco-
vering
America.*

In 1741, Bering sailed through this sea, accompanied by the astronomer De l'Isle de la Croyer, of the De l'Isle family, which has produced such learned geographers. Another captain went also on the discovery. Bering and he arrived at the coast of America, on the north of California. This passage, so long sought for through the North Seas, was, therefore, at last discovered, but no succour nor refreshments were found on these desert coasts. Fresh water failed them, and the scurvy carried off a part of the ship's crew. They saw, for the space of a hundred miles, the north shores of California, and they perceived copper canoes, which carried men like the Canadians. All was fruitless. Bering died in an island to which he gave his name. The other captain, finding himself nearer California, landed ten of his men, but they never appeared again. The captain, after expecting them in vain, was obliged to return to Kamtschatka, and De l'Isle expired as he just got to land. These disasters are the destiny of almost all the first attempts on the North seas. It is not yet known what benefit will be derived from such painful and dangerous discoveries. Hereafter, in describing America, we shall have an occasion to speak of that part of it which lies nearest to Kamtschatka.

We have specified whatever composes in general the dominions of Asiatic Russia. All the great parts of the Russian empire have been united at different times, as it has happened in all the other kingdoms of the world.

Scythians, Huns, Massagetes, Slavonians, Cimbrians, Getae, Sarmatians, are now the subjects of the czars. The Russians are, properly speaking, the ancient Roxolans, or Slavonians.

After a few cursory reflections, we shall find, that the greater part of other states are composed in this manner. France is an assemblage of Goths, Danes called Normans, septentrional Germans called Burgundians, Franks, Allemands, and some Romans, mixed with the ancient Celts. Great Britain and Ireland are much the same way compounded, except that the blood of the Scots, Irish, and Welch, remains still more unmixed. In Rome, and in Italy, are several families descended from the people of the North, as Lombards, Goths, Teutons, and Cimbrians; and now none of the ancient Romans are known in this country; the Spaniards are a race of Arabs, Carthaginians, Jews, Tyrians, Visigoths, and Vandals, incorporated with the inhabitants of the country. When there is such a mixture of nations it is long before they can be civilized, or even brought to form their language. Some admit of being polished sooner, others later. Police and arts are established with so much difficulty, and revolutions ruin so frequently the commenced edifice, that there is good reason to be astonished, that the greater part of nations do not live like Tartars.

S E C T. IX.

Of the Empires of China and Japan.

*Situation,
boundaries,
and extent
of China.*

THE vast, ancient, and opulent empire of China, situated on the most eastern verge of the Asiatic continent, is bounded on the north by east and west Tartary, from which it is divided by a prodigious wall of one thousand five hundred miles in length, and partly by high, craggy, and inaccessible mountains. On the east, it is bounded by the Eastern Ocean, on the west by part of the Mogul's empire, and India extra Gangem, from which it is parted by ridges of other high mountains and sandy deserts; and on the south, partly by the kingdoms of Lao, Tonquin, Ava, and Cochinchina, and partly by the Southern Ocean, or Indian Sea, which flows between it and the Phillipine Islands. It is of such great extent, that it reaches in latitude from eighteen to almost forty-three degrees, so that its utmost length, including the island of Hay-nan, will be one thousand eight hundred miles, and
its

its breadth, measured from the sea-port town Nimpo, in the province of Che-kien, to the utmost boundaries of Su-chuen, will be one thousand two hundred and sixty.

The country is for the most part temperate, except to-
 wards the northern parts, which are intolerably cold, not
 so much from their situation, as from the ridges of moun-
 tains that run along them, which are excessive high, and
 commonly covered with deep snows. The soil is different
 according to the diversity of climates, and the face of the
 country, in some parts mountainous, in others champaign;
 but the inhabitants are such expert and diligent masters of
 agriculture, that they leave no spot uncultivated. As they
 abound with artificial canals and reservoirs for watering
 and fertilizing their low lands, so they have been no less in-
 dustrious with respect to their high ones; first, by levelling
 a great many of them, whenever the labour and number of
 hands could compass it to advantage; secondly, by level-
 ling and flattening the very summits of many of their moun-
 tains, in order to make them bear variety of grain, pulse,
 and the like; and thirdly, by dividing their declivities
 into as many flat stages as they can conveniently bear;
 by which means the waters, whether of rain and dew, or
 of the springs that come down from the tops, have a
 proper time to soak into the ground, and to nourish the
 sown seed, instead of rooting it up and washing it down,
 as happens in other countries, by the violence of their
 descent along their natural declivity. Nothing can be
 more agreeable than to view, from the lower vallies, those
 sides of the mountains cut into such a number of terraces
 one over the other, and all covered up to the top with
 variety of corn and fruits. These mountains are nothing
 near so hard and stony as ours, but rather of a soft porous
 nature, and what is still more surprising, may be dug with
 ease some hundreds of feet deep; so that the salts which
 transpire through their pores, prove a constant and excel-
 lent manure to these artificial grounds: but where the
 mountains are rocky, they content themselves with plant-
 ing them with all sorts of fruit and other trees, accord-
 ing to the nature of the ground. They are no less
 curious and careful in improving every sort by a proper
 manure; and thus, as well by their abundance of water,
 as warmth of the climate, their ground yields in some
 provinces two, and sometimes three, plentiful harvests
 in a year.

*Tempera-
ture and
soil.*

The product of the country is corn and grain of all
 sorts, in great plenty; with silk, cotton, honey, wax,
 fruits

fruits of all the sorts we have in Europe, and several others, all exquisite to the sight and taste, not known amongst us. Their oranges, grapes, figs, pomegranates, ananas, and many others, are in as great perfection as in any part of India. Their rich pasture grounds breed prodigious numbers of cattle. Game is in great plenty and variety, particularly bears, boars, buffaloes, deer of several kinds, whose skins are a profitable commodity. Besides these, there are a number of elephants, tygers, fierce, and extremely dangerous, seeking their prey commonly in large droves; and leopards, with various kinds of other wild creatures, not to be found in many other countries. The musk-cat, which carries that noble perfume in a kind of bladder under its navel, is caught here, and is in great esteem. They have horses, camels, oxen, swine, in no less abundance than in other countries; their mules in particular, which are wild, are fitter for eating than for other uses. Their birds are eagles, cranes, storks, birds of paradise, pelicans, peacocks, pheasants, geese, swans, ducks, and a numberless variety of others. As for fish, there can be no doubt but that the multitude of rivers, canals, and lakes, as well as the sea that runs along the south-east coast of the country, must supply them with the greatest plenty and variety of it. Besides these, most of the great and rich people have large canals and ponds stocked with them for their own use; but the most curious in these kinds of fish-ponds, adorn them with one particular kind, which they call gold and silver fish, from their colour.

*Gold and
silver fish.*

This strange and beautiful species is about the length of one's finger, and thick in proportion. The male is of a delicate red from the head to the middle, and from thence to the tail of a bright colour, which by far exceeds the finest gilding. The female is white, and has a tail like a nosegay, which, with part of its body, shines like polished silver. They generally swim near the surface of the water, and give a most exquisite resplendency and variety to it, and they multiplied so fast, that if care be not taken of their eggs, which float upon the water, the whole surface will be covered with them. These eggs are exceedingly tender, and easily killed by heat or cold, strong smells, thunder, or the report of a cannon; the way of preserving them is to take them gently out of the water, and put them in small vessels, well sheltered from wind, rain, and cold, till they are hatched by the sun, and

grown

grown to about an inch in length ; then, with safety, they may be removed into their primitive reservoirs where they are justly admired as a wonder of nature.

The Chinese have also plenty of sugar, tobacco, and oil, *Other products.* extracted not from olives but from seeds ; vast quantities of olives of a different kind from ours, yet of a fine taste ; though either unfit to produce, or not thought worth extracting oil from ; and a variety of excellent wines, some from grapes, others from rice, others from quinces and other fruits, palm, and other trees. Camphor, ebony, sanders-wood, oak, pine, and ather lofty and strait trees, are found in great abundance, especially on those mountains, which are not otherwise cultivated. The low country abounds with variety of canes, junks, and bamboes of exquisite beauty, together with vast quantities of medicinal roots, such as china-root, rhubarb, ginseng, and many more ; and, among a vast variety of shrubs, that so much esteemed of late in Europe, called tea.

All teas are the leaf of one and the same shrub ; the *Tea.* supposition that green is from one kind of tree, and bohea from another, is a vulgar error ; for they differ only as malt may do in being higher or slack dried, or being finer or coarser. The tea-shrub is of the kind of our dog-tree, and its leaf of an austere, bitter, astringent taste, without any aromatic warmth. It has very little oil in it, and that which it has is of the resinous kind, and is narcotic and stupefactive. It has also but very little salt, and that is of a fixed kind. Besides the general division of teas into two sorts, green and bohea, they are differently denominated and known by sub-distinctions, according to the provinces or districts where they grow, the period of ripeness when gathered, the size of the leaf, or the method of curing ; as hyson, imperial, bloom, congo, singlo, fouchong, &c. The leaves, when immediately pulled from the shrub, are so extremely bitter, as to yield an infusion which is very disagreeable to the taste ; therefore, to abate this unpleasing quality, the people, who are appointed in China to prepare them for use, infuse them, soon after collecting, for a certain time in water, by which a portion of their bitter resinous particles being taken away, they become to be so mild as to be pleasant, and very engaging to the palate. After being infused, they are dried in the following manner : the bohea, which is made from the leaves when full ripe, and ready to fall from the tree spontaneously, being thus brought to a proper

per flavour by infusion, is immediately dried by the sun, or fire, so that it may be preserved for use ; therefore, as the tree or shrub which yielded it, incurs no detriment from the leaves being pulled off, as they were in a deciduous state, this tea can be afforded at a cheaper price than the green ; and this will account for the leaves of the bohea being darker in colour, and smaller in breadth ; because, being almost dry when they are collected, and then steeped in water, in curing they are higher dried, and so more contracted and corrugated than the green tea. This, on the contrary, is pulled from the same shrub in a more violent way, just as the leaf is expanded to full maturity ; whereby the tree which produces it suffers so much detriment, that two or three years of respite are allowed it to recover its pristine vigour ; and the leaves it produces, in those years of recovery, are collected when they fall, and prepared for the bohea ; on which account the green tea is sold at a higher price than the bohea ; and the bloom tea still much dearer than either. Green tea also becomes dearer by a more expensive preparation ; for, as soon as it is reduced to a proper pitch of flavour by the previous infusion in water, it is immediately exposed to the warm rays of the sun, and carefully and assiduously turned for a convenient time ; after which it is strewed upon broad sheets of copper, laid upon embers, where it is rolled and turned by the hands of proper persons, who are armed with gloves of leather to protect them from the mischief, to which they have found by experience, they are in this business exposed, by the metallic efflorescence from which the green tea derives its more agreeable colour ; and, according to general, but false estimation, its superior excellency over the bohea : for, in things of this sort, the delusion or infatuation is almost universal, which prevails among Asiatics and Europeans indiscriminately, and engages them to make the consideration of health subservient to the gratification of the palate, and the delights of the eye ; therefore, the verdant beauty of this artificial colour is more alluring, and more esteemed, though often pernicious, than the brown hue of the bohea, which is prepared in a manner more consistent with the simplicity of nature, and the safety of health. The Chinese very rarely drink the green tea ; and it is observable, that those amongst them who drink it to any excess, become tabid and die emaciated. In short, the drinking of tea in general may be reckoned a

great cause of the manifest effeminacy and diminutiveness of their persons ; for what other reason can we assign so probable, for the obvious constitutional difference between them and the more robust people, who live almost under the same latitude. If we also compare the nature of tea with the nature of English diet, no one can think it a proper vegetable for us, having no parts fit to be assimilated to our bodies ; its essential salt does not hold moisture enough to be united with the body of an animal ; its oil is but very little, and that of the opiate kind ; and therefore, it is so far from being nutritive, that it irritates and frets the nerves and fibres, exciting the expulsive faculty, so that the body may be lessened and weakened, but cannot be increased and strengthened by it. And, indeed, the nervous complaints, so frequent of late years, especially among the weaker sex, may be chiefly attributed to the use of this exotic beverage.

The Chinese, it is said, have been obliged to the use of tea for their common drink, ever since they had found by experiment, that nothing else could correct so well their waters, which are almost every where brackish. The most considerable of those waters are, the Ky-am, or *Blue River*, which rises in the kingdom of Tibet, and crosses the country from east to east ; the Ho-ambo, or *Yellow River*, because, after rains especially, it is of that colour, and extremely muddy. It rises near the extremity of the mountains, which divide the province of Suchan from Tartary, near the frontiers of the mogul, and runs a course of above one thousand nine hundred miles. There are many other great rivers of the same nature, alike rapid and muddy ; some of which have great cataracts of a prodigious height, and make a noise like continued claps of thunder. There is one always as red as blood, another that glitters by night, occasioned by the great quantity of precious stones contained in it, from which it styled the Pearl River. There is a third near Fomin, which turns blue in harvest, at which time the inhabitants are used to dye that colour. We are told of another near Pan-gau, whose waters are so light, that they will bear no timber : those of another near Ching-tein, are said to be sweet-scented ; and that called Kin-za, or *Golden River*, is so named from its great quantity of gold sand. There is one in the province of Fokien, whose water is green, and is affirmed to turn iron into copper ; those who are witnesses of the fact may believe it. That called Xo is said to cure divers diseases ; but the most remarkable

*Brackish
waters,
and of
strange
colours.*

minerals, fossils, &c.

The mountains of China abound with minerals; among the former of gold and silver; but their mines are not suffered to be worked, lest the people should not be forced to seek for more probable that they either keep or rather, perhaps, to keep down the price which would rise in proportion to the circulating money. Their workmen are paid five farthings sterling per day, a small sum for the circulation of such inferior produce and manufactures through the country.

As to the mines of gold, it seems to them that gathering such particles by the rivers, and are found still more easily caught by fleeces, and other strainers. Great multitudes of people are employed in this business, and, it is said, large quantities are washed down from the mountains. Found among the sand and mud of the mountains have also mines of quicksilver, which are manufactured with great neatness and curiosity. They have some others, which are not

common, and therefore kept as a great secret among them; such, for instance, is that famed one, called tonbaga, or donbaga, which is of the colour of very pale brass, or a dull kind of tin; they ascribe several extraordinary virtues to it, particularly of expelling poison, stopping hemorrhages, and the like, by only wearing a ring or necklace made of it. Among other articles produced in their mountains, we may reckon likewise plenty of pitcoal, many salts, excellent quarries of stone, some of marble, and

and so curiously variegated with landfhips and other natural refemblances, as if drawn by design with a pencil. Several others forts are efteemed for their fine colour and hardnefs, fome of which bear a noble luftre like diamonds; and others, when burnt, yield a metal, of which they make fwords and other weapons. We are told of others of a precious kind, fhaped like a fwallow, and others of great efficacy in divers difeafes.

The province of Quang-fi is famed for a yellow earth, which has the virtue of expelling poifon, and curing, by external application, the bite of venomous creatures. Some forts of earth they have of a fine vermilion colour, and others of a delicate white, which the ladies ufe for paints. In feveral places of the empire, they prefs a fort of lime from the bark of a tree, which is tough like pitch, and which, when mixed with proper colours, ferves to paint their houfes, cabinets, and other utensils, and has a fine luftre and fmoothnefs like glafs. This lime they call giran, but it is more commonly known amongst us under the name of Japan-work, becaufe that which comes from Japan far exceeds any that is made in China, in luftre, hardnefs, and fine variety of paintings. This feeret the Chinefe are fo jealous of having difcovered by foreigners, that they have poifoned feveral, and fome of our nation, whom they fufpected to have pried too narrowly into it.

Earth's and other curious articles.

Befides the common bees-wax, they have another fort, the cleareft and whiteft in the world, which is produced by an infect no bigger than a flea, on the top of the branches of fome particular trees, where thefe little creatures lay their eggs, which, in the fpring, turn into fmall worms. The proprietors of thefe trees gather this wax, and make it into cakes, which are quite transparent. The inhabitants of Xantum put thefe worms into large canes, and, by felling them to the adjacent provinces, make a confiderable profit of them.

Singular fort of wax.

The empire of China is divided into fifteen principle provinces, but moft commonly into the following diftinct parts or diftricts. 1. North of the Great Wall are, Niuche, Corea, Laotong, the chief towns of which are, Niuche, Petcheo, and Chinyam. 2. Within the Great Wall, and adjoining it, are Pekin, Xanfi, and Xenfi; the chief towns Pekin, Tayen, and Sigam. 3. On the coaft of the Chinefean fea; Xantum, Nanking, and Chekian; the chief towns, Chinchis, Nanking, Nimpo, and Chufam. 4. Midland, comprehending Honan, Huquam, and Ki-amfi; the chief towns Honan, Toangfu, and Nankan,

Divifion of China.

kan. 5. Southern, as Fokien, Canton, and Quamsi; the chief towns, Fochien, Amoi, Canton, and Quelin. 6. Western, as Suchuen, Quecheu, and Yunam; the chief town, Tchinteu, Queyang, Quecheu, and Yunam. 7. The Chinese islands, which are Formosa, Ainan, Macao, and the Bashee islands, the chief towns of which are Tambay, Lincato, and Macao.

China was begun to be surveyed by the Jesuit missionaries the 4th of July, 1708, and finished the 1st of January, 1717. They determined the latitudes of above five hundred cities by observations, and their longitudes by the method of triangles; being also assisted by maps and histories preserved in the tribunals of the cities, and the information of the mandarines, as well as the chiefs of the people through whose territories they passed.

Cities and towns described.

The cities and towns of China are all built in one form, as near as the ground will permit; that is, square. Two great streets, which cross one another in the middle of the town, divide it into four quarters; and from the center the four principal gates may be seen at once. The gates stand due east, west, north and south. Pekin, the capital, consists of two cities joined in one, by the name of old and new; the old is the Tartar, and the new the Chinese city, which is the more populous. Both together are six leagues in circumference. Pekin is supposed to contain not less than two millions of inhabitants. Its walls are fifty cubits high, and defended by square towers about a bow-shot distance from one another. Every gate of the town has a fortress or redoubt built before it, of equal height with the gate; the arches or gate-ways are built with marble, but the rest of the walls with brick. The emperor's palace stands in the middle of the Tartar city, and is an oblong square, about two miles in length and one in breadth, defended by a good wall. Without the gates of every town there are usually two magnificent towers erected, and near each tower is a temple of idols, and another dedicated to the genius and guardian angel of the place. In almost every city are triumphal arches, built to the honour of some great men who have been benefactors to their country; and colleges and temples founded in memory of their great philosopher Confucius, where his precepts are taught. Without the gates of Nanking (formerly the capital of China before the imperial residence took place at Pekin) there are two towers built alike, in the form of a cone. One of them is called the Porcelane Tower, being faced therewith on the outside. It is of an octangular figure, contains nine stories, and

and is two hundred feet high. Above the eighth story there is a cupola, which rises thirty feet higher than the tower, and on the top is a very large golden ball. This tower has stood above three hundred years, appears very beautiful, and is said to be the best contrived and noblest structure in the East. There is scarce a city or village in the whole empire, especially in the southern provinces, but enjoys the benefit of some navigable river, lake, canal, or arm of the sea, insomuch, that almost as many people live upon the water as on land. Wherever there is a town on shore, there is another of boats upon the water, and many people are born, live, and die upon the water, keeping hogs, poultry, dogs, and other domestic animals on board. Besides these vessels, there are a prodigious number of floats of timber, perpetually going up the rivers and canals; which carry whole villages of people upon them. Some of these floats are a mile in length; the proprietors build little huts on them, where they live till they have disposed of their timber, which they carry sometimes a thousand miles by water; and thus every part of this extensive empire has an easy communication with the other; which is a great advantage to trade.

The Great Wall, which separates China from Tartary, *Great Wall.* begins in the province of Xensi, which lies on the north-west of China, in about 38 deg. north latitude, and is carried over mountains and vallies, and terminates at the Kang Sea, between the provinces of Pekin and Laotonge. The whole course of it, with all the windings, is about fifteen hundred miles. It is almost all built with brick, and such well tempered mortar, that it has now stood about eighteen hundred years, being very little decayed. It was built by the emperor Chihohamti, to prevent the incursions of the Tartars. Its height is about thirty feet, and it is broad enough for eight people to ride a-breast. It is fortified all along by square towers, at the distance of a mile from each other.

The Jesuits have computed that there are in China one hundred and fifty-five capital cities, one thousand three hundred and twelve of the second rank, two thousand three hundred and fifty-seven fortified towns, ten millions of families, and fifty millions of people.

China is reckoned by most geographers to have been *Name of* the country of the ancient Sinæ mentioned by Ptolemy, *China.* and so called from one of its ancient monarchs, named Chin, or Cina, who is said to have reigned here above fifty years before the birth of Christ. But this country boasts a much older date; and though it might receive its name

name from that monarch, it had probaby many others before, as it had since; for it is a maxim in this empire, that when the government falls from one family to another, the first prince of the new always gives his name to the whole country. We are also told, that there have been no less than twenty-two such families, who have each changed its name for their own. Some, therefore, think from thence, and with good reason, that it had the name of China from its great produce of silk, which is here the finest in the world, and is manufactured with great elegance and variety.

*When and
by whom
discovered.*

The Portuguese discovered this remote and opulent country somewhat more than two hundred years ago. It was indeed, in some measure, known to the ancients, under the name of Seres, and some commerce was carried on between them; but the large sandy desarts and inaccessible mountains that lie between it and India, its great distance from Europe, and the old Chinese policy of not admitting strangers among them, or suffering their own people to go into other countries, made it impossible for Greeks, Romans, or any other nation on this side the Ganges, to know any thing of this country, or its inhabitants, except what they might guess by the commodities brought from thence, which were but few in comparison to its present exports. It is true, Paul the Venetian's account of Cambalu, which, in all probability, was the city of Pekin, and his mighty character of the cham and his subjects, is now by all applied to China; but it was then understood of Tartary, and so continued till the discovery of China by the Portuguese, who opened, by their great improvements in navigation, a new way to, and commerce with it. They were so greatly surpris'd at its opulent condition, and the excellent genius and politeness of its inhabitants, considering them as a people that lived entirely within themselves, and had received no helps or instructions from other nations, that the reports they made of them at first appeared more like romance than truth. But we cannot be said to have been fully acquainted with the true state of the Chinese nation, till the zeal of the missionaries of the church of Rome excited them to go and preach the Gospel among them. The Jesuits and others, who were first intended for this mission in 1580, being informed that the Chinese had but an imperfect insight into the mathematical sciences, took care, before they set out, to make themselves thorough masters of them, in order by that means, to recommend themselves to the Chinese gentry and nobility,

who

who shewed a particular fondness for that kind of study. Accordingly they took with them the best maps, globes, spheres, and other mathematical instruments; and, in a short time, shewed a skill in those sciences, especially astronomy and navigation, so far superior to that of the Chinese, that they easily introduced themselves into the acquaintance and favour of persons of the highest rank, the emperor not excepted, who raised some of them to the dignity of mandarins, or *lords of the council*; allotted them apartments in the royal palace, and gave them all manner of encouragement, even to a full permission of propagating their religion all over his dominions. It is, therefore, to these gentlemen that we are indebted for our present knowledge of China, though their accounts did not gain so universal a credit, many things having been thought exaggerated by them, till they had been for the most part confirmed to us by persons of our own, and other nations.

The origin of the Chinese nation may be justly considered in the same light as the spring-head of the Nile, or other such rivers; and what their popular traditions say of it deserves no less to be exploded by men of sense, since they pretend to an antiquity anterior, not only to the flood, but even to the creation. Some of the translators of the Chinese history ascribe the foundation of this monarchy to Fohi, who is there said to have began his reign about two thousand nine hundred and fifty-two years before Christ. This Fohi is affirmed to have been the first who reduced mankind into societies, and to have taught them agriculture and other social arts, which were afterwards improved by his successors. Among these, Hoam-ti, surnamed the Yellow Emperor, because he assumed that colour, since become peculiar to the imperial dignity, rectified the Chinese cycle, invented music and musical instruments, navigation, fishing, arms, and other arts. His queen, at the same time, is said to have invented the raising and feeding of silk-worms, and to have laid the foundation of that noble manufacture. These two are supposed to have reigned two thousand six hundred and ninety-seven years before Christ. Xao Hao, their successor, began to build cities, and to surround them with walls; and, for the more expeditious bringing together of proper materials for building, contrived the way of conveying them by carts, drawn by oxen. He died, according to the same chronology, two thousand five hundred and seventeen years before Christ; and his nephew and successor Choven Hio, made a law, that none but the

*Original of
the Chi-
nese.*

emperor†

emperor of the world should sacrifice to the emperor of heaven. He reformed the calendar, and ordered it to begin at the nearest new moon to the spring season. Ticho, his nephew, who succeeded him two thousand four hundred and fifty-seven years before Christ, is said to have been the inventor of vocal music, in which he received no small help from his four wives. These six princes were followed by the two famed emperors and lawgivers, Yo and Xoun, from whom the Chinese received their civil and religious institutes. These two reigned one hundred and fifty years, which joined to the reigns of the other six, make, in all, seven hundred and thirty-seven years; and from these eight persons descended the following imperial families:

1. Of Hia, of which there were seventeen emperors, who reigned four hundred and fifty-eight years.
2. Of Xam, including twenty-eight emperors, and six hundred and forty-four years.
3. Cheou, thirty-five emperors, eight hundred and seventy-three years.
4. Chin, three emperors, forty-three years.
5. Han, twenty-seven emperors, four hundred and twenty-six years.
6. Hau-hun, two emperors, forty-four years.
7. Chin II. fifteen emperors, one hundred and fifty-five years.
8. Soum, seven emperors, fifty-nine years.
9. Chi, five emperors, twenty-three years.
10. Leam, four emperors, fifty-five years.
11. Kin, five emperors, thirty-two years.
12. Soui, three emperors, twenty-nine years.
13. Tam, twenty emperors, eighty-nine years.
14. Heou-eam, two emperors, ten years.
15. Heou-tam, four emperors, thirteen years.
16. Heou-chin, two emperors, eleven years.
17. Heou-han, two emperors, four years.
18. Heou-cheou, three emperors, nine years.
19. Soum II. eighteen emperors, three hundred and twenty-nine years.
20. Yoven, nine emperors, eighty-nine years.
21. Mim, twenty-one emperors, two hundred and seventy-six years.
22. Chim, two emperors, fifty-three years.

This was the last family that reigned before the late conquest of China by one of the Tartar princes.

M. de Voltaire tells us ^p, that the Chinese history is incontestible, being founded on celestial observations, and traced by the most accurate chronology, so high as an eclipse calculated two thousand one hundred and fifty-five years before our vulgar æra, which the reverend missionaries, skilled in mathematical learning, have confirmed. To

^p In his Introduction to the General History and State of Europe.

this account we can by no means assent, for these reasons :

First, it is well known the Chinese make use of no letters, but represent words by arbitrary marks, which renders their characters too numerous to be retained by the memory, makes writing very tedious, and the knowledge of what is written to be attended with infinite obscurity and confusion, as the connection between these marks and the words they represent, cannot be retained in books, but must be delivered down by oral tradition. The history and inventions of past ages must, therefore, be frequently unintelligible, and the learning and boasted antiquity of this nation, in many instances, extremely problematical.

*Voltaire's
opinion
concerning
the anti-
quity of the
Chinese
refuted.*

Secondly, the Chinese themselves are not agreed in settling the antiquities of their country; for there are some who fix the original of their empire hundreds of thousands of years before the creation. This opinion prevails among the vulgar. Some make Fohi the founder of the kingdom two thousand nine hundred and fifty-two years before the birth of Christ. Another set of learned men maintain, that the foundations of this kingdom were laid about four thousand twenty-five years since, by a certain prince named Yas. This last opinion is looked upon as an article of faith; and if a Chinese should publicly deny it, he would be esteemed a heretic, and severely punished. The Jesuits are obliged to adopt this opinion upon pain of death, and obtained leave from the pope to stick to the Septuagint version, which agrees with it better than the Hebrew.

Thirdly, the Chinese chronology is very uncertain and fictitious. Father du Halde, a zealous admirer of it, offers nothing in its defence, except an eclipse of the sun, which happened in the reign of Chong-kang, two thousand one hundred and fifty-five years before the commencement of the Christian æra. But M. Maigrot, bishop of Koxon, with great reason, believes the chronology of ancient times among the Chinese to be very uncertain and precarious; as also that the Chinese annalist, Chuhi, has adjusted both the years and eclipses solely according to his own fancy. Of this no one can doubt, who considers that the Chinese were little versed in astronomy, even when the Jesuits first came among them; and that they were so far from being able to calculate an eclipse, or even likely to make any celestial observations,

two thousand one hundred and fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, that they probably knew as little then of any thing relating to eclipses, and the other heavenly phenomena, as the bulk of mankind, or even the most illiterate nations at present do.

Fourthly, If China had been so large, rich, and learned an empire as it is pretended, the Persians would most certainly not have remained in utter ignorance of it, when their emperors had made part of India tributary to them, which was a country contiguous to China; and yet we find that there was not the least intimation of this people till the time of Alexander the Great, who penetrated into India, and even then we find nothing of moment relating to them.

Fifthly, The Chinese observations of the heavens are frequently fictitious; for, as father Martini informs us, the sun, according to the Chinese, had not set for ten years. Can any one be so sanguine as to believe this to be a real observation? Will not this invalidate their other observations, when they exceed all belief, or at least have not a proper degree of probability? Nothing is, therefore, more chimerical than the conclusion drawn from the eclipse two thousand one hundred and fifty-five years before the birth of Christ, in support of antiquity equally absurd and romantic.

Sixthly, The Chinese have no historical records, but only fragments of their classical or canonical books; and those, we may suppose, greatly corrupted; for the emperor Shi-wangti, in the year before Christ two hundred and thirteen, ordered all the copies of books in his empire, except those written by lawyers and physicians, to be burnt, which was done accordingly. Nay, he ordered many learned men to be buried alive the next year, lest they should invent a method of transmitting to posterity the historical memoirs of the empire, which he was resolved to annihilate.

Seventhly, Confucius in his time complained of the want of genuine historical memoirs, and yet the Jesuits and modern Chinese pretend to give us authentic memoirs of the monarchs of China, who lived two thousand years before that philosopher. This is a most absurd pretension, as evidently appears from the translation M. Bayer has given us of the *Chun Quieu* of Confucius. This contains a most crude, jejune account of the Chinese dynasties and reguli preceding his own age, and deserves not the name of a history.

If

If the Chun Quieu be as old as Confucius, it was written about five hundred years before the birth of Christ. If so learned a man could write no better, or had no better materials, what can we think of those who lived in the remotest ages? But there is the greatest reason to think that this book is far from being genuine or coeval with Confucius; for the Chinese records were destroyed about two hundred and sixty-seven years after the death of Confucius; and we may justly believe that but a small part of his historical works is now remaining. This single remark is enough to destroy the authority of those romantic accounts of the first emperors of China, which the modern Chinese and their adherents would impose on us. M. de Voltaire should not, therefore, have endeavoured to establish an opinion as incontestable, which he must certainly know has been greatly controverted, and, in the opinion of the most learned and candid judges, fully confuted.

The Chinese monarchy, great as it is, must of consequence be supposed, like all others, to have had but a small beginning; especially as their more authentic accounts date its infancy only about two or three hundred years after the flood. About this time, it is probable, some of Noah's children, or grand-children, having penetrated through the eastern parts of Asia, settled on that fertile and delightful spot which is on the south-east part of China. Fohi, the founder of the Chinese monarchy, from the resemblance of names and other circumstances, has been supposed by several learned men of our own and other nations, to have been the same with Noah; and, some have gone even so far as to suppose this patriarch to have been the first planter of China just after the flood, and that the Ararat mentioned by Moses, on which the ark rested, was not that ridge so called in Armenia, but one of those which divide India from China.

*By whom
first peo-
pled.*

The Chinese have been governed since the year 1645 by Tartar princes. Two factions in China having engaged the whole empire in a civil war, the weaker called in the cham of Niuche, a little Tartarian kingdom, to their assistance. This prince had no sooner enabled his allies to crush their enemies than he took an occasion to pick a quarrel with the party that called him in, and made an entire conquest of the country, where he so well established himself, that his posterity still remains in peaceable possession of the throne. As he was very sensible his Tartars were much inferior to the Chinese in number, he oblig-

*Chinese
subdued by
the Tar-
tars.*

ed all the Chinese soldiers, especially those who had lifted amongst his troops, to cut off their hair, and change their habits to the Tartar fashion, in order, that being looked upon as Tartars, they might over-awe the rest. This he extended immediately after to the Chinese in general; and had it not been for this politic proceeding, the Chinese would soon have been sensible of their superiority, and put an end to the Tartar usurpation. But what contributed still more to the establishment of the Tartars, was their employing the Chinese both in their civil and military affairs; they advanced the most popular of the grandees to be viceroys and governors of provinces, and so made them accessary to subduing their own country; they remitted to the people one third of their taxes, governed them by their own laws, and delivered them from that tyranny the great men used to exercise over them; so that, except in the matter of their hair and habits, the Tartars seem rather to have submitted to the laws of the Chinese, than to have imposed any upon them; and Tartary may now be said rather to be subject to China, than China to Tartary; for in China is the seat of the empire; there the supreme courts of justice are held; there all the wealth of the united kingdoms centers; there all honours and degrees are conferred: whence China may be said to have gained a great addition of strength by Tartary, and has now no enemy to fear. Their indigent northern neighbours are under the same sovereign, who keeps them so much in subjection, that they are no longer in a condition to disturb China. The petty Tartar kings, as they are called, are no more than his viceroys, or governors of provinces; and the emperor has forts and garrisons through their whole country. The late emperor Canghi is the grandson of Xunchi, or T'soute, the Tartarian prince, who conquered China, now upwards of a hundred years ago. At his accession in 1722, he took upon him the name of Yong Ching, which signifies *Lasting Peace*. The empire of China is hereditary, unless the reigning emperor makes an alteration in the succession, which he cannot do without the concurrence of his great council, which consists of the princes of the blood and great officers of state.

Govern-
ment, no-
bility,
forces,
revenues.

The emperor of China is as despotic and arbitrary as any oriental prince, for he has an absolute power over the lives and fortunes of all his subjects, the princes of the blood not excepted. His will is a law, and his commands admit of no delay or neglect under severe penalties. Not-

withstanding, his government is one of the most regular in the world, and the tribunals and magistracy are established in the most exact and uniform manner that can be contrived for the administration of justice, and the due performance of all the offices of a well regulated government. For the better managing the great affairs of his vast empire, he is assisted by two sovereign councils, which sit at Pekin, the capital; the one styled extraordinary, and composed of princes of the blood only, and the other ordinary, which, besides those princes, consists of several mandarins, and other ministers of state, called Colaos. Six other superior tribunals are held in the same city for civil and military affairs; to each belongs a different employ or inspection, and their authority extends over all the empire. Every mandarin, or governor, is obliged to transmit to court an account of his administration annually, and is severely punished if he endeavours to palliate any miscarriages; but as corruption prevails to a great degree in China, he that can bribe highest is morally sure of gaining his point. Except the princes of the blood and tributary kings, there is at present no hereditary nobility among the Chinese, or any distinction but what their places and offices, or superior wealth or learning, create. The forces of the empire are said to amount to five millions, which are a kind of militia, called out only as the exigences of the state require. They have no naval force, though they have a sea-coast of several thousand miles; and their skill in navigation is trifling, if compared to that of the Europeans. The revenues of the empire are said to amount to upwards of twenty millions sterling per annum.

The religion of the Chinese is gross idolatry, or rather they are said to worship one supreme God, and several inferior deities, who appear to have been men eminent in their several ages, particularly the inventors of arts and sciences. They also worship things inanimate, as mountains, woods, and rivers, but never sacrifice to vice, as is customary with other Pagans. There are three sects in China at this day: first, the followers of Li-laokun, who lived, they say, above five hundred years before Christ. He taught that God was corporeal, and had many subordinate deities under his government. His disciples study magic, and pretend to make that drink which will give men immortality. The second is the sect of the learned, or disciples of the so much celebrated Confucius, who left

*Religion
and learn-
ing.*

many admirable precepts of morality, and instructed the people in philosophy. He speaks of God as a most pure and perfect principle, and the fountain and essence of all beings. Though we are told he prohibited idolatry, he has temples and images erected to him, and is worshipped with the profoundest adoration, as appears from the pope's decree against the Jesuits for allowing their converts to mingle this idolatrous worship with that of Christianity. The third sect, which is the worshippers of the idol Fo, or Fohi, the founder of the Chinese nation, is much more numerous than either of the former. They style him the only saviour of the world. His priests teach several moral precepts, and a state of rewards and punishments after this life. The punishments consist chiefly in animating some vermin or beast of burden after life; whence, it seems, the doctrine of the transmigration of souls has been long known to them. The Chinese, besides, have an image of immortality, which they worship in the form of a monstrous fat man, sitting cross-legged, with a huge prominent belly. There is another called the idol of pleasure, about twenty feet high; and between these, in their temples, is another large image, thirty feet high, gilded over with a crown upon his head, and richly dressed; this they call the Great Kang, to whom they pay adoration. The emperor being of Tartar descent, follows the idolatry of this nation, which does not differ much from that of the Chinese, except that they worship a living man, whom they style the Great Lama. They give him the name of Eternal Father, and all the eastern Tartars have the greatest veneration for him. He is shewn in a dark place in his palace, illuminated with lamps. That he may be thought immortal, his priests chuse one out of their number as like him as possible, who succeeds him when he dies. None of his votaries doubt of his living for ever. His urine and excrements are held as sacred, and are distributed in presents to the Tartar princes, who mix them up as something very delicious in the saucers of their food. The Christian religion made a great progress in China about a hundred years ago. The Jesuits relate they had two hundred churches and chapels there; but falling out with the other missionaries, and endeavouring to ruin each other, they were all in general banished the kingdom by the present monarch, and their proselytes were compelled by him to renounce Christianity. We are told, that Christianity

Christianity was first planted in China and the Indies, either by the apostle St. Thomas, or by some of his disciples. The Chinese records seem to intimate, that a man came there about that time, who preached a heavenly doctrine, and confirmed it by miracles. In an ancient Chaldee breviary of the church of Malabar, the conversion of the Chinese is attributed to that apostle. There is also an ancient marble pillar raised in the province of Xen-si, in memory of a man that brought Christianity thither in the year 636. However, the missionaries of the church of Rome, did not find, as we learn, the least vestige of Christianity remaining in China when they came there. As to the learning of the Chinese, it seems wholly confined to the study of their own language. Their characters are a sort of short-hand. Every character signifies a word or sentence. They have not to this day the use of letters. There are upwards of twenty thousand of these characters, and their most learned men are scarce masters of all of them. Those in common use do not exceed three thousand, which are understood in every part of the empire. They write from the top to the bottom of the page. This great number of characters is reducible to a pure and simple alphabet, like any other language; for a Chinese character is no more than a word written with its proper consonants and vowels; not indeed at length, as we do, but intermingled one with another, by some peculiar method known only to them, or perhaps only to the learned among them, and concealed from the vulgar, and more especially from strangers. It would be no difficult matter to imitate the Chinese method of writing, in ours, or any other European language, by joining and intermingling the vowels and consonants of each word in the same or such like order as they do theirs, that is, by making the first letter the chief and largest character, and placing the rest regularly round it, either jointly or separately. In all other respects the Chinese are not near so learned as reported. They were almost as bad astronomers, geographers, and musicians as any of their barbarous neighbours, before the missionaries came amongst them; and whatever proficiency they have since made in logic, natural philosophy, geometry, anatomy, or any art or science, was entirely owing to the instructions they received from the same missionaries. They are still so fond of their old astrology, that they mark the lucky and unlucky days in their almanacs; and, indeed, they are such superstitious observers of times, and

rely so much on the predictions of their astrologers and fortune-tellers, that they govern most of their actions by the direction of such people, and will not undertake a journey, or any business of moment, without consulting them.

*Persons,
habits,
customs,
character,
genius, &c.
of the
Chinese.*

The Chinese are generally of a moderate stature, broad faces, black hair, small black eyes, short noses, and thin beards. Their complexions incline to tawny near the tropic; but in the north they are as fair as other people under the same parallel. The women are remarkable for their little feet, being esteemed their greatest beauty. In order to keep them little, they are bound up from their infancy so tight, that they cannot grow to the common size; the foot of a full grown woman is not much bigger than a child's of four years old. The men wear a bell-shaped cap on their heads, which does not cover their ears; they also wear a vest and sash, and over the vest a loose coat or gown, and a kind of silk boots quilted with cotton. When they are at home among their friends, they throw off every thing but a pair of drawers, and appear as naked as the common people about the streets; but this must be understood of the southern provinces. The women dress with their hair down, and keep nothing on their head, in the south. They generally wear a silk vest, red, blue, or green, and over it a loose gown, with white sleeves, and embroidered silk shoes, but by reason of the smallness of their feet, hobble prodigiously when they walk. In most other countries mutual consent constitutes the validity of marriage; but there is no such thing in China. The parties never see each other till the bargain is concluded by the parents, which usually happens when they are perfect children; nor is the woman's consent ever demanded afterwards. Great pomp is used in the marriage-ceremonies. The bride brings no dowry, but is rather purchased by the spouse, who, besides the price he pays for her, commonly spends very considerably on the nuptial feast, and makes a very splendid and costly cavalcade in bringing her home. This is the constant custom of the rich; but the poorer sort, who cannot afford to pay money for a wife, go to some of their foundling hospitals, and beg for one, which is seldom denied; and this both saves charges, and makes the wife commonly more submissive to her husband. In regard to the treatment of persons that die, there is scarce any country where grief is manifested to so great a degree, especially for a near relation, or where mourning is so deep or continued

so long. Every Chinese keeps in his house a table, whereon are written the names of his father, grandfather, and great-grandfather, before which they frequently burn incense, and prostrate themselves; and when the father of a family dies, the great-grandfather is taken away, and the deceased added to make up the number. No persons are ever buried within the walls of a town or city, nor is a dead corpse ever suffered to be brought into them, if the person dies in the country. Mountains and solitary places are generally chosen by the great men to build their sepulchres in; and some of them are said to be little inferior to palaces. If the sepulchre is erected in a plain they raise a great heap of earth over it, which they carry almost to the height of a mountain.

The Chinese are exceeding fond of shows and magnificence, an instance of which we shall here give in an account of a festival not long since solemnized in their country. It has been an ancient custom among them to celebrate the sixtieth year of the emperor's mother with most amazing pomp. The last three months of the year 1751, were taken up in making preparations for this approaching grand festival. All the painters sculptors, architects, musicians, and carpenters of Pekin and the neighbouring provinces, were employed, each in executing some master-piece of his respective art. The main object was to charm the eyes and ears of the most delicate and voluptuous court in the universe. The whole distance from one of the emperor's houses of pleasure to his palace in the center of the Tartar city in Pekin, being about twelve English miles, was to be decorated in the most superb manner; and as the procession would be, in great part, along the river, it was foreseen, that the barks constructed to carry the emperor, the empress-mother, and the whole court, were likely to be of very little use, on account of the ice, the time of the ceremony falling out in the most rigorous season of the year. However, certain mandarins undertook the removal of these obstacles, by employing, night and day, for more than three weeks together, some thousands of hands in continually beating the surface of the water to prevent its freezing, and a like number in breaking the ice already formed; but, in spite of all these precautions, the cold prevailed, the whole river was set fast, and the project abandoned. The principal director of this fruitless enterprize was mulcted two years salary, and obliged to furnish sledges instead of the barks. Both sides of the
river

river were covered with edifices of divers forms, which gave a striking pleasure to the beholders. On such parts of the river as were wider than the rest, wooden houses were erected upon piles, and disposed in groups to which bridges conducted; the whole gilded, painted, and most superbly ornamented. In some were choirs of musicians, in others companies of comedians, and in others magnificent thrones, with all varieties of refreshments for the emperor and his mother, if they should be pleased to stop there. In the city, from the gate of entry quite on to the palace, were grand buildings, peristyles, pavilions, colonades, galleries, and amphitheatres, with numberless rich trophies. Factitious jewels sparkled in all parts, and the gaudy objects were reflected and multiplied by an infinite number of little mirrors of polished metal. These glittering edifices were here and there interrupted by artificial mountains and vallies, cattle, trees, and fountains; in other places with gardens stocked with fruits and flowers of every season of the year, which, though artificial, could hardly be distinguished from natural, so exquisite was the illusion. In some places rocks arose, and children clothed in skins, played the part of monkees and other animals, skipping from cliff to cliff. Some weeks before the ceremony the streets were divided into three parts, of which the middle was destined for those who rode on horseback or in carriages; one of the sides for persons advancing forwards, and the other for those who were returning. A number of soldiers, armed only with staves, prevented all disorder and confusion; and as women never intermix with men in the streets, the emperor appointed certain days for them alone. The presents made on this occasion, in a great measure, equalled the magnificence of the spectacle. The Europeans distinguished themselves by a most ingeniously contrived piece of machinery, with which the emperor was so highly delighted, that he caused it to be deposited in his palace, and frequently amused himself in visiting it. The expence of this pompous entertainment exceeded three hundred millions of roupees, and it was graced with the presence of the two imperial personages on the 6th of January, 1752.

The Chinese are undoubtedly a very ingenious and industrious people, as appears by all their fine manufactures daily brought into Europe; such as their wrought silks, cabinets, and other japannery, their curious porcelain; though in this they are excelled by the Japanese, and are still likely to be more so by the Saxons and Ger-

mans,

mans, where a manufacture has not long since been set up, which exceeds them both, especially in the beauty of the painting. The admirable cultivation of their land, their great and many canals, and variety of magnificent structures, are farther testimonies of their genius and industry; to which we may add, what seems now generally agreed on all hands, that they have had the use of the mariner's compass, of gunpowder, and the art of printing, for many centuries, insomuch that some are of opinion, that they were all three brought from thence to Europe, either by Paul the Venetian, or by some other channel. And, indeed, with respect to the last, whoever considers that the first essay of Faustus, who invented, or rather improved that art, was done upon wooden blocks, in the same way as has been done in China from time immemorial, will be apt to own that theirs gave the first notions to Europeans, though they have since so infinitely surpassed them. They are likewise masters of several arts and sciences, though not to the perfection we are; but they value themselves extravagantly, and despise others highly, which is a great blemish to their characters. To this we may add, that they are of a most insinuating address, and will not decline the most hazardous enterprizes where there is a prospect of gain. The men of figure are perpetually engaged in pursuit of places and preferments, which they procure by bribes, or presents, as they are called. Their laws oblige them to certain rules of civility in their words and actions; but they are naturally a fawning, cringing generation, and the greatest hypocrites on the face of the earth. Trade and commerce, or rather cheating and over-reaching, seems to be the natural bent and genius of this people: gain is their god, they prefer it to every thing. A stranger is in great danger of being cheated if he trusts to his own judgment; and if he employs a Chinese broker, it is well if he does not join with the merchant to impose on the stranger.

The Chinese, from the remotest antiquity, exported the growth and commodities of their country, chiefly raw silk, wherein it abounds, all over the East. It is from thence they were, by the Greeks and Romans, called Seres. Under the reigns of some former emperors, China was, as Japan now is, shut up, and kept from all commerce with foreign nations, and the inhabitants strictly forbid, under severe penalties, to export the growth of the country, or to have any communication with their neighbours. Things stood thus, when the late Tartarian conqueror,

*State of the
Chinese
trade.*

queror, thinking it would very much conduce to the honour of his subjects, and the advantage of his dominions, for the future to permit a free and undisturbed commerce, resolved to suffer his subjects to trade abroad, and to give free access to his dominions. The Europeans purchase the merchandize of China with bullion, or foreign coin, which is taken by weight, the Chinese pound containing sixteen ounces.

As there is a great affinity between the religion, customs, books, learned languages, arts, and sciences of the Chinese and their neighbours the Japanese, and as the Japanese islands make an entire and considerable empire, we may, with some propriety, describe them here.

Japan described.

The great and opulent country of Japan, which has the title of empire justly given it, as being divided into many distinct dominions, stiled kingdoms, under one monarch or emperor of the whole, is situate on the most eastern, and most remote part of Asia from us, in all our hemisphere, and, consequently, the place where the rising sun is first seen; and being above one hundred and thirty degrees from us, they have their morning, noon, and other times of the day, at least eight hours before us. The Europeans call it Japan, but the inhabitants Nippon, from the greatest island belonging to it, and the Chinese Siphon, probably, on account of its eastern situation; these names signifying in both languages, the basis or foundation of the sun. Though it has but one general name, it must not, therefore, be imagined to be one continued track of land, or one single island; for it consists of several large ones, besides a number of small. Nippon is by much the most considerable of the rest, reaching from south-west to north-east, about nine hundred miles, and in breadth, in some parts near three hundred and sixty miles. The whole empire, exclusive of the small islands that lie scattered at a distance, consists of three principal ones, Nippon, Ximo, and Xi-Coco; they extend almost eleven degrees, that is, from latitude 30 deg. to almost 41 deg. and from east to west almost 17 deg. that is, from 130 deg. to 147 deg. of east longitude.

Almost all the coasts of this extensive empire are surrounded with such high and craggy mountains, and such shallow and boisterous seas, that sailing about them is extremely hazardous; and the creeks and bays are choaked up with such rocks, shelves, and sands, that it looks as if Providence had designed it to be a kind of little world by itself; and this may best account, perhaps, for the first

peopling

peopling of those islands. The Chinese do indeed pretend, that they were first peopled by themselves; but it is more probable, their original inhabitants were a mixture of different nations, driven thither by those tempestuous seas, and at different times; and this appears from the great difference observable between the present inhabitants, in regard to features, complexions, shapes, habits, customs, genius, and languages; notwithstanding their having been so long united under one monarch. What-
 ever affinity there may be between the Chinese and Japanese, one thing, however, is certain, that in the character they bear with other nations, they appear in a quite opposite light. Whilst the Chinese are looked upon as crafty, cunning, covetous, and knavish, the Japanese are admired for their strict honesty, fidelity, and generosity: they are generally wise, acute, and ingenious, surpassing all Orientals, and even Europeans in docility. They enjoy themselves as much in innocent pleasures as any other nation, but can at any time forego them for better employment, and are content when their circumstances do not easily admit of them. Neither are they covetous after much wealth, being satisfied with a competency, as the best preservative against lying and cozening, against envy or detraction. In conversation, they observe a great decorum, and avoid all loose, light, and vain speeches, affecting a kind of laconic style, and an aversion to railing and defamation. In diet, they are abstemious; in dress and furniture, clean and decent. Drunkenness and gluttony are scarce known amongst them, any more than cheating and dishonesty; yet, with these virtues, which many of them possess in an eminent degree, they are frequently cruel and revengeful, and carry their resentment to excess; and in great misfortunes, as injuries, disgrace, affronts from their superiors, or other such mortifications, they most commonly make away with themselves. Their women are more particularly guilty of this crime of suicide, especially, whenever their chastity, conjugal fidelity, or even modesty, are called in question.

The situation of Japan is such as to possess the fifth and sixth climates, so that the longest day is between fourteen and fifteen hours; and their heat might be expected to exceed ours by many degrees, though we are told, that their winters are excessive cold, by the vast quantities of snow that usually fall there, and the great rains and bleak winds to which those islands, which lie very high, are constantly exposed. The Dutch in general assure us, that
 the

*Soil and
produce.*

the land is fertile, well cultivated and peopled, and that, besides corn, rice, and other grain, it produces a great variety of fruits, and breeds vast numbers of cattle of all sorts. Some parts are incumbered with woods and forests, and intersected by long ridges of mountains of a considerable height; but some of these mountains are enriched

Mines, &c.

with mines of gold and silver in large quantities, and extraordinary fine, with copper exquisitely fine, tin, lead, iron, besides a great variety of other minerals and fossils; whilst others abound with several sorts of marble, and other curious stone of a more precious nature. Some of those mountains also may be justly intitled to a rank among the natural rarities of this country; one, in the great island of Niphon, is of such prodigious height, as to be easily seen forty leagues off at sea, though its distance from the shore is above eighteen. Some authors think it exceeds the famed Peak of Teneriffe; but it may be rather called a cluster or group of mountains, among which no

Volcanoes.

less than eight have very dreadful volcanoes, burning with incredible fury, and causing great disorder and devastations round about them, not unlike those of Vesuvius. But, to make some amends, they afford great variety of medicinal waters of different degrees of heat; the most remarkable of them is that mentioned by Varenus, which is said to be as hot as boiling oil, and to scorch and consume every thing thrown into it.

*Colossus at
Meaco.*

Among the artificial rarities of this country, we shall only mention the famed colossus of the city of Meaco, which is all of gilt copper, and of such a prodigious size, that, being seated in a chair eighty feet in breadth, and seventy in height, no less than fifteen men can stand conveniently on its head. Its thumb is fourteen inches in circumference, and the rest proportionable to it. This is one of the principal idols or deities of this island. But the Japanese are so greatly addicted to this kind of idolatrous worship, that every place swarms with idols. They have them not only in their temples, but in their other public and private buildings, in their streets, market-places, and even along the highways. The temple of Meaco in particular may be considered as a Japanese Pantheon, containing no less than three thousand three hundred and thirty-three idols within its walls.

*Govern-
ment.*

The government of these islands, is, and has been for a long time monarchical, though formerly, it seems to have been split into a great number of petty kingdoms, which were at length all swallowed up into one. The imperial dignity

dignity had been enjoyed for a considerable time, till the year 1500, in a constant succession, by princes under the title of dairos, a name, it is supposed, derived from Dairo, the head of that family. Soon after that ill-fated epoch, such a dreadful civil war was raised, and lasted so many years, that the empire was quite ruined. During this horrid confusion, in which all the petty kings and princes were committing the greatest devastations against one another, a common soldier, by name Tayckoy, and a person of obscure birth, but of an enterprising genius, found means to raise himself to the highest power. He began at first with fifty soldiers, equally intrepid and daring; but was seconded by such an uncommon share of fortune, that their numbers quickly increasing to a great army, he carried on his conquests with incredible success and celerity. In little more than three years time, he subdued all the contending parties, took their cities and castles, and raised himself to the imperial dignity. The dairo, not being in a condition to obstruct, or put a stop to his progress, was forced to submit to his terms; and might, perhaps, have been condemned to much harder, had not Tayckoy been apprehensive, lest his soldiers, who still revered their ancient natural monarchs, should have revolted in his favour. To prevent this, he granted him the supreme power in all religious matters, with great privileges, honours, and revenues annexed to it; whilst himself remained invested with the whole civil and military power, and was acknowledged and proclaimed emperor of Japan. This great revolution happened in 1517, and Tayckoy reigned several years with great wisdom and tranquility; during which, he made many wholesome laws and regulations in his new empire, which still subsist, and are much admired to this day. At his death, he left the crown to his son Tayckosamma, then a minor, but the treacherous prince, under whose guardianship he was left, deprived him of his life before he came of age. By this murder, the crown passed to the family of Jejasamma, whose great-grandson Tūnajos, was upon the throne, when our last accounts came from thence. Tayckoy, and his successors, have contented themselves with the title of cubo, which, under the dairos, was that of prime minister, whose office is now suppressed; so that the cubo, in all secular concerns, is quite as absolute and despotic, and has as extensive a power over the lives and fortunes of all his subjects, from the petty kings down to the lowest persons, as ever the dairos had.

Revolution.

The

The daïro resides constantly at Meaco, and the cubo at Jeddo.

*Japan,
how, and
when dis-
covered.*

Whether these islands were known to the ancients or not, is a question not worth inquiring into. Paul, the Venetian, gave some account of them, which he had from the Chinese, prior to their discovery by the Portuguese in 1548, when one of their ships, bound from Siam to China, was driven upon those coasts by stress of weather. It was not long before their nation got admittance into this empire; and, having recommended themselves to the emperor by their great skill in the liberal sciences, not only obtained a free commerce, but likewise a free exercise of their religion, and, in time, a liberty and encouragement to propagate it through his dominions; inasmuch, that if their accounts may be credited, about one third of the inhabitants were converted, and the emperor himself an extraordinary favourer of, if not a zealous proselyte to it. All these great advantages were at length entirely lost, partly by the indiscreet zeal of the missionaries, partly by the jealousy of the unconverted nobles, and especially of the Japanese priests, who could not, without the greatest envy and regret, behold their old religion, with all its powerful attractives of profit, popular esteem, and respect, daily losing ground; but more particularly, by the policy or treachery of the Dutch, who found effectual means to undermine them. All the Christian converts were put to the most cruel deaths, and the Europeans, except the Dutch, were, under pain of death, forbid to come within the Japanese dominions. The Dutch have ever since ingrossed the trade of Japan, exclusive of all other Europeans, but are under such restrictions, that it is quite out of their power to form any designs upon the country.

*Trade of
the Dutch
with the
Japanese.*

The commodities exported by the Dutch are chiefly rice, silks, cotton, the finest of porcelane, varnish, gold and silver, copper and steel, elephant's teeth, very rich furs, tea of all sorts, some kinds of such excellent flavour and taste, that they are sold at a prodigious rate, even above that of gold, weight for weight; a great variety of medicinal herbs, roots, and gums; all which, as well as the tea, are sold genuine, without the adulterations committed by the Chinese in theirs: ambergrise, pearls, coral, &c. in exchange for which, the Dutch bring them not only glasses of all sorts, woollen and linen cloths, &c. from Holland, but furnish them likewise with many other commodities

commodities from Siam, China, and other parts of India. In the carrying on of this commerce, there is this farther encouragement, that no custom is paid for goods, either imported or exported.

S E C T. X.

Of India, and the Oriental Islands.

INDIA has lost nothing among the moderns of that *Importance of India.* esteem which it was possessed of among the ancients. The curious do not hesitate to make a voyage of above three thousand leagues, to visit the wonders of that country; its riches make our merchants forget the trouble, the fatigue, and danger, of a long and painful navigation; the learned, throughout all Europe, carefully seek after its animals and plants, to study the singularities of nature, more various and fertile in these countries than in their own; its beauties adorn the palaces of princes, and add splendor to the diadems of sovereigns.

Since the Portuguese found the way to India by the Cape of Good Hope, between two and three hundred years ago, the voyages thither by the English, Dutch, French, Portuguese, and Spaniards, have been almost infinite. Every one of these nations has made its particular discoveries there; and, at present, that country is almost as well known to us as any of the European. *Extent and boundaries.* India, according to the latest observations, extends from the 83d deg. of longitude to the 130th; and from the equator to the 23d deg. of north latitude. From China to Persia, which bound these countries on the east and west, are reckoned about five hundred leagues; and there are almost as many from the extremity of the peninsula beyond the Ganges to Tartary, which bounds India on the north side.

The air cannot be the same throughout this vast extent *Air and soil.* of country, but, in general, it is good and healthy. The rains, which fall continually from the beginning of June till the end of August, serve to refresh it, especially in the two peninsulas, which are almost entirely within the torrid zone. They render the earth fruitful, which furnishes in abundance all the necessaries of life, except towards the north, where it does not answer equally the labour of those who cultivate it. From hence arises that almost infinite number of inhabitants in India, which compose, even at this day, fifty-two kingdoms and different principalities,

whereof, it is true, the greatest part depend on the principal sovereigns of the country.

Grand division.

This country is divided into two principal parts; the first called India within the Ganges, Indostan, or the empire of the Great Mogul; and the second, India beyond the Ganges, or its further peninsula, governed by different princes.

Boundaries, situation, extent, and divisions of the Mogul empire.

The empire of the Mogul is bounded by Usbeck Tartary and Tibet on the north; by another part of Tibet, Acham, Ava, and the bay of Bengal, on the east; by the Indian Ocean, on the south; and by the same ocean and Persia, on the west. It is situate between 66 and 92° of east longitude, and between 7 and 40° of north latitude, and extends two thousand miles in length, and fifteen hundred in breadth. The south-east coast of India, situate on the bay of Bengal, usually called the coast of Coromandel, contains the provinces of Madura, Tanjour, east side of Bisnagar or Carnate, Golconda, and Orixá, the south-west coast or coast of Malabar, those of the west side of Bisnagar or Carnate, Decan or Visiapour, and Cambaya or Guzarat. The north-east division comprehends the provinces of Bengal, on the mouths of the Ganges, and those of the mountains of Naugracut, distinguished into Bengal Proper, and Naugracut, Jesuat, Patna, Necbal, Gor, and Rotas. The north-west division on the frontiers of Persia and the river Indus, contains the provinces of Soret, Tesselmere, Tata, Buckor, Multan, Haican, and Cabul. And the middle division, those of Candish, Berar, Chitor, Ratipor, Narvar, Gualcor, Ayra, Delhi, Lahor, Hendows, Cassimere, Jengapour, and Asme.

The chain of mountains which run through this peninsula, from north to south, are the cause of an extraordinary phenomenon in natural history. The countries which are separated by these mountains, though under the same latitude, have their seasons and climate entirely different from each other; and while it is winter on one side of the hills, it is summer on the other. On the coast of Malabar, a south-west wind begins to blow from the sea at the end of June, with continued rain, and rages against the coast for four months, during which time the weather is calm and serene on the coast of Coromandel; and towards the end of October, the rainy season, or change of the monsoon, begins on the Coromandel coast; at which time, the tempestuous winds beating continually against a coast, in which there are no good ports, make it so dan-

dangerous for the shipping to remain there for the three ensuing months, that it is scarce ever attempted. This is the cause of the periodical return of our ships to Bombay, where there is a secure harbour and convenient docks.

This great extent of country has been inhabited, from the earliest antiquity, by a people who have now little or no resemblance, either in their figures or manners, with any of the nations which are contiguous to them. Its first inhabitants were probably from Persia, that kingdom being an inlet to it, and in the way of Mesopotamia, where it seems to be agreed the descendants of Noah first settled after the flood: but, whoever were the first inhabitants, the Ethiopians next possessed the southern division of the peninsula, as appears from their posterity remaining there, not a white man, or any other complexion but blacks, possessing any part of that country; and that they came from Ethiopia is evident, not only from their complexion, but from their long hair and regular features, very different from the other African blacks. A farther evidence of their being the descendants of the Ethiopians, is, that the queen of Sheba, or Ethiopia, made presents to Solomon of the finest spices, which only grow in India, and were brought from the colonies of the Ethiopians, and planted here. It may be said, perhaps, that the people of this country were originally black; but this is far from being probable, because none of the natives of the other parts of India are black, though they lie much nearer the equator. The Arabs were the next that possessed the maritime parts of this country; for almost all the coast were subject to Arabian or Mohammedan princes, when the Portuguese arrived here in 1500; and these had dispossessed the Ethiopians, and driven them up into the midland country, where they still remain. India was afterwards, about the year 1400, invaded by the Mogul Tartars under Tamerlane, who fixed his third son, Miracha, in the north of India and Persia; but the southern peninsula of India was not reduced under the obedience of the Mogul princes, until the reign of Aurengzebe. This prince deposed and confined his father Shah Gehan, who died in 1666; and having murdered his three brothers, and some of their children to acquire the throne, he maintained himself in it near fifty years; but with so strict an attention to the government of his empire, and with so laudable an administration, that the crimes he was guilty of to pave the way to his accession, if they appeared such in the eyes of his countrymen, were quite obliterated, and

Antiquity of India, and by whom first inhabited.

Invaded and conquered.

Aurengzebe and his descendants.

he seemed entitled to be ranked with the ablest princes who had reigned in any age or country. He conquered more than half the provinces of Indostan in person, and his viceroys conquered or subjected almost all the rest, the sea-coasts of Malabar excepted. The revenues of the empire amounted, in his time, to thirty-eight millions of pounds sterling. He was near a hundred when he died in 1707. He never eat any flesh-meat, nor tasted strong drink. But all his abilities did not give him the power of securing his crown to one of his sons in preference to the rest; and it appears by his will, that he foresaw the contests which ensued amongst them after his death. His sons, Azem Shah, and Mahomed Mauzm, fought at the head of armies not equalled since the time of Tamerlane. That of Mahomed Mauzm consisted of more than three hundred thousand fighting men, of which one hundred and fifty thousand were cavalry. Azem, who seems by his father's will to have been the favourite, was defeated and killed, and Mauzm was proclaimed emperor, under the title of Badahr Shah, after which he attacked his brother Kaunbuksh, who was taken prisoner and died of his wounds. Badahr Shah died after reigning about six years, and his four sons disputed in like manner the throne. By that dependence to the great men of the kingdom, to which their contest for the crown had reduced the descendants of Aurengzebe, the emperor's elected, though despotic with the multitude, ascended the throne in bonds, and were, in reality, nothing more than the slaves of their ministers. Abdallah Khan, and Hossam Aly Khan, two brothers, were powerful enough to make four, and depose five emperors of Indostan. But still the blood of Tamerlane continued to be held in too great veneration throughout the empire, to permit any others but his descendants to entertain the thoughts of ascending the throne with impunity. The two brothers, and those who stood nearest to the throne, in virtue of their offices and power, were therefore contented to rule the empire as they pleased, by shewing to the people a pompous sovereign, who, in reality, was to command nothing but the women in his seraglio. With this view, they at last fixed their choice on Mohamed Shah, son of one of the princes who perished in disputing the succession of their father Behadr Shah. The beginning of his reign was not without a stroke of authority in the mode of eastern politics. The courtiers, to please him, assassinated Hossam Aly Khan, one of the two brothers, whose hands had been imbrued

imbrued in so much of the blood of his family. The other brother immediately appeared in arms, but was soon taken prisoner, and died of the wounds he had received in a battle, which he fought for another emperor of his own nomination. The removal of two such dangerous enemies to the throne, placed Mahomed Shah in possession of it with a security unknown to his predecessors, since the reign of Aurengzebe; but this security served only to render him unworthy of it. Indolent, sensual, and irresolute, he voluntarily gave to favourites as great a degree of power, as that which the ministers of the throne had lately possessed, in defiance of the will of their sovereign. The favourites quarrelled with Nizam al Muluk, the viceroy of the southern provinces, who had under his jurisdiction very near a fourth part of the empire, and who, without rebellion, had rendered himself almost independent of the emperor. He censured openly the pusillanimous administration and dissolute manners of the court, so degenerate from that of Aurengzebe, under whose eye he had been bred. At last, pretending there could be no remedy to such desperate evils, but a total revolution of the empire, he advised Thamas Kouli Khan, who had usurped the throne of Persia, to come and take possession of that of Indostan; and Thamas Kouli Khan followed his advice. An army famished by its own numbers, commanded by chiefs, unanimous in nothing but their unwillingness to fight, and these by an emperor who could not command his fears, submitted to enemies whom they out-numbered five to one; but these enemies had been inured to conflicts under the most desperate foldier of the age, and were rendered invincible by the expectation of plundering the capital of the richest empire in the world. A skirmish decided the fate of the empire. Mahomed Shah laid his regalia at the feet of Thamas Kouli Khan, who took possession of Delhi, plundered it, and massacred one hundred thousand of its inhabitants. The conqueror reserved to himself all the countries lying to the westward of the rivers Indus and Attoc, restored all the rest to Mahomed Shah, and reinstated him in the throne with formalities; after which he returned to Persia, carrying with him out of Indostan a treasure, which in effects, silver, gold, and jewels, was valued at upwards of seventy millions of pounds sterling. He entered India from Candahar in the beginning of the year 1738, and returned to Candahar at the end of the year 1739. This dreadful incursion is

reckoned to have cost Indostan, besides its treasures, the loss of two hundred thousand lives.

The cruelties exercised in India by Thamas Kouli Khan, were such, that a dervise had the courage to present a writing to him, conceived in these terms: "If thou art a God, act as a God; if thou art a prophet, conduct us in the way of salvation; if thou art a king, render the people happy, and do not destroy them." To which he replied, "I am no God, to act as a God; nor a prophet, to shew the way of salvation; nor a king to render the people happy: but I am He whom God sends to the nations which he is determined to visit with his wrath."

The prince whom Kouli Khan had reinstated, is said to have been murdered by the vizir Gauze Odin Khan, who thereupon exalted Allum Geer to the throne of Indostan; but some time after, being dissatisfied with his own election in the person of this prince, he imprisoned him, kept him in close confinement for several years, drove his children from Delhi; and at length, to complete the system, murdered him also, and proclaimed another prince at that capital. This is the present state of the Mogul family, and it is Allum Geer's son, by the title of Shah Zahah, who of late has occasioned great disturbances in the government of Bengal, by making a party there. When he was apprised of his father's assassination, he did not long delay to assert his title to the inheritance of his ancestors. He caused himself to be acknowledged king immediately by his dependents, and was recognized as such by his followers; and he demanded homage and obeisance from the nabob of Bengal.

*Government of
Indostan.*

It is generally supposed, that the peninsula within the Ganges is under the immediate government of the Mogul himself, and that the royal mandates from Delhi are, according to the received notion of so arbitrary a dominion, obeyed in the most remote parts of the coast. This is so far from the truth, that a great part of that vast peninsula never acknowledged any subjection to the throne of Delhi, till the reign of Aurengzebe, as above mentioned; and the revenues from those Indian kings and Moorish governors, who were conquered or employed by him, have, since his death, been intercepted by the viceroys, whom his weaker successors have appointed for the government of the peninsula: so that at this time, neither can the tribute from the several potentates reach the court of Delhi, nor the vigour of the government extend from the capital to those re-
mote

mote countries. And ever since Indostan was ruined by Thamas Kouli Khan, the weakness of the Mogul, and the policy and confirmed independency of the viceroys, have, in a manner, confined the influence of the government to its inland department. Let it therefore be understood, that the sovereign possesses a third only, and that the least valuable part, of his own vast empire. Bengal, the smallest, but most fertile province, is governed by a viceroy. The other division, called the Decan, extending from Balasore Jagonaut, or thereabouts, to Cape Comorin, is also delegated by the Mogul to another viceroy, of exceeding great power, having within his jurisdiction seven large territories, to which he has the undisputed right of nominating seven nabobs, or governors of provinces. In all parts of India, there are still large districts, which have preserved, with the Gentoo religion, the old form of government under Indian kings, called rajas; such are Maissore, whose capital is Seringapatam; and Tanjore, the capital of the same name. There are also, among the woods and mountainous parts of the country several petty princes, distinguished by the name of polygars. These are all tributary to the nabobs, and those to the viceroy, whose capital is Aurengabad. The Carnatic is that part of the Decan which comprehends the principal settlements of the Europeans, Madras, Pondicherry, and also Arcot.

Nothing appears a greater difficulty to the military men in this part of the world, than the possibility of subsisting such vast multitudes as the Asiatic armies frequently consist of, especially so large a proportion of horse; but if it be a matter of astonishment, that such numbers of fighting-men are frequently brought into the field, how will it appear when it is added to the account, that every horseman has two servants, one to take care of his horse, the other to procure him forage, and that all these are accompanied by their wives and children; that there always follows the camp a moveable town of shops, where every thing is to be sold as in their cities; besides some hundreds of elephants for state only, and a train of women, with their numberless retinue, belonging to the prince and the great officers: for whenever the sovereign moves, he is more taken up with a vain ostentation of pomp and magnificence than with the object of the war; and it is his pleasure that his subjects should abandon the capital, in order to augment his numbers. In imitation of their sovereign, and from the same motives of pride and vanity, the lesser princes and viceroys affect the same magnificence

Military force, and manner of the Mogul's going to war.

in the splendor of their camps, and the number of their followers. To provide for all these, the whole country is put in motion, and the strictest orders are given for all provisions to be brought into the camp. By these means, all the cities, far and near, are exhausted, but the camp, for the most part, is plentifully supplied. However, it must be supposed, that these numerous armies seldom keep the field any time, without great loss by famine; for a very considerable diminution is scarcely felt among such numbers, and very little regarded from any notions of humanity; a famine is, therefore, neither considered as any thing extraordinary, nor will the remembrance of it ever prevent the assembling of another multitude, who must also be liable to the same chances of subsisting or starving, as accident shall determine. In like manner, allowance must be made for the great loss and damage they sustain in men, beasts, and all the implements of war, as often as they move in difficult roads and defiles, particularly in their method of passing over great rivers; for their rivers, when they are not fordable, in the rainy season become torrents, being swelled to such a degree, that they are not to be passed but slantwise, the landing-place being frequently above a mile below the place of embarkation.

*Want of
courage in
the Indians,
to what
owing.*

It is owing entirely to an ignorance of the manners of the Asiatics, that many people imagine they can never be made soldiers. It may, perhaps, be shewn, that they never will, whilst the same wretched government and abhorrence of innovation subsists; but those are greatly mistaken, who attribute their dread of fire-arms, and particularly of artillery, to a dastardly disposition and an invincible timidity. The true cause lies in the inexperience of their leading men, who never understood the advantages of discipline, and who have kept their infantry upon too low a footing. Their cavalry, though not backward to engage with sabres, are extremely unwilling to bring their horses within the reach of great guns; so that they do not decline an engagement so much through fear for their lives, as for their fortunes, which are all laid out in the horse they ride on. Such of the natives as have been disciplined and encouraged by Europeans, and formed into a regular infantry under officers of their own, and generally known by the name of Sepoys, have familiarized themselves to fire-arms, and behaved well behind walls; and when we give them serjeants to lead them on, they make no contemptible figure in the field. In war with
the

*Obstacles
to their
success in
war.*

the Asiatics alone, we have a much greater advantage in their being so very tenacious of their old manners than in their want of bravery. When we march round them with our light field-pieces, and make it necessary to move those enormous weights, their bullocks, which are at best very untractable, if a shot comes among them they are quite ungovernable; and, at the same time, so ill-harnessed, that it causes no small delay to free the rest from one that shall happen to be unruly or slain. Besides, not only the prince himself, but every raja, who has the command of all the forces he can bring into the field, be they more or less, always appears among them mounted on an elephant, and is at once the general and ensign, or standard of that corps, who keep their eyes constantly on him, and if they lose sight of him for a moment, conclude that all is lost. Thus we find Aurengzebe gained two battles by the treachery of those who desired his two victorious brothers to get down from their elephants, mount their horses, and pursue the vanquished: their troops missing them, immediately dispersed. The same practice continued to this day, affords our engineers a fair opportunity of deciding the fate of a whole detachment, by one well-directed discharge of a six-pounder; and those enormous beasts now seem to be brought into the field for no other end but to be a mark for our artillery. It is said, they begin to see the danger of this practice, but surely that might have been found long since; for before the use of artillery, the general, thus distinguished, was, in like manner, exposed to the arrows of a whole army, and yet we always find them in the same perilous station. Porus is said to have been pierced with nine arrows, and to have sunk from his elephant with innumerable wounds. It should seem probable, that not merely their regard for ancient manners, but the expediency of keeping their troops together by this signal, will induce them to continue the same method; the necessity of which will appear from the conduct and success of Aurengzebe, who, when he found his army giving way on every side, ordered chains to be fastened about the legs of his elephant, to convince them that he would not give the example of flight; and that those to whom his life was dear or interesting, could preserve it by no other means but firmly maintaining their ground. To shew, however, that they themselves are sensible of the danger of being thus exposed, they will sometimes avail themselves of the only device that can afford them any security; for it has been
observed,

observed, that several elephants caparisoned alike, with riders in the same rich and splendid habits, have appeared in different parts of the field on the same day. Another great obstacle to their success in war, is their superstition, and particularly their strict observance of lucky and unlucky days, which often prevents them from taking the most obvious advantages of an enemy. Being fond of all kinds of beasts of prey, they keep great numbers of them, and often visit them before they give battle. If they find them heavy and dull, they think it a bad omen, and a reason sufficient to postpone their intended design of an action; and, on the other hand, the accidental fury of the animal is regarded as a happy omen of success. They have also a custom of matching two wild beasts, most commonly elephants; and having given their own name to the one, and that of the enemy to the other, they bring them together to fight in presence of their army; but, in this custom they are not altogether to be condemned for superstitious folly, since they have the policy to make it a very unequal match, and give their own name to the stronger. We shall add to these observations, that notwithstanding they have so severely suffered by being surprised in the night by the Europeans, they can never be brought to establish either order or vigilance in their camp. At the close of the evening, every man eats an inconceivable quantity of rice, and many take after it some kind of soporific drugs; so that about midnight, the whole army is in a dead sleep. The consequence of these habits is obvious; and yet it would appear a strange proposition to an Eastern monarch, to endeavour to persuade him, that the security of his throne depended upon the regulation of the meals of a common soldier; much less would he be prevailed on to restrain him in the use of that opium, which is to warm his blood for action, and animate his soul with heroism. It must fill the mind of an European soldier at once with compassion and contempt, to see a heap of these poor creatures, solely animated by a momentary intoxication, crowded into a breach, and both in their garb and impotent fury, resembling a mob of frantic women.

There is certainly an appearance of effeminacy in the eastern dress, which has at all times greatly contributed to lessen their military character with the European nations, who, from their own habits and prejudices, will naturally receive a strange impression upon seeing a body of horse in silk or cotton robes; and yet there is no character they are so fond of as that of a warrior; and as they have no

other notion of government, they have been, from time immemorial, continually at war with one another.

The original inhabitants of Indostan have lost very little of their original character by the establishment of strangers amongst them. Besides the particular denominations which they receive from the casts and countries in which they are born, there is one more general, which is applied indiscriminately to distinguish the original natives from all who have intruded themselves amongst them, Hindoo, from whence Indian.

Character, religion, manners, customs, &c of the original inhabitants of Indostan.

The Indians have lost all memory of the ages in which they began to believe in Vishnou, Eswara, Brama, and a hundred thousand divinities subordinate to these. These divinities are worshipped in temples, called pagodas, in every part of Indostan, the whole extent of which is holy land to its inhabitants; that is, there is no part in which some divinity has not appeared and done something to merit a temple and priests to take care of it. Some of these temples are of immemorial antiquity; they are, at the same time, monuments of such stupendous labour, that they are supposed to have been built by the gods to whom they are consecrated. The histories of these gods is a heap of the greatest absurdities. It is Eswara twisting off the neck of Brama; it is the sun, who gets his teeth knocked out, and the moon, who has her face beaten black and blue at a feast, at which the gods quarrel and fight with the spirit of a mob. They say, that the sun and moon carry in their faces to this day the marks of this broil. Here and there a moral, or metaphysical allegory, and sometimes a trace of the history of a first legislator, is discernible in these stories; but in general they are so very extravagant and incoherent, that we cannot help being surpris'd how a people, so reasonable in other respects, should have adopted such a code of nonsense as a creed of religion, did we not find the same credulity in the histories of nations much more enlightened.

The Bramins, who are the tribe of the priesthood, descended from those Brachmans who are mentioned to us with so much reverence by antiquity; and although much inferior, either as philosophers or men of learning, to the reputation of their ancestors, as priests their religious doctrines are still implicitly followed by the whole nation, and as preceptors they are the source of all the knowledge which exists in Indostan.

The religion and history of the Gaures, or ancient Persians, are in a great measure the same with those of the Brachmans,

Writings and religion of Zoroaster.

Brachmans, or primitive inhabitants of India. They are derived from Zoroaster, and, besides being a very interesting object of themselves, they merit the attention of the learned, by the connection those people have had with the Hebrews, Greeks, and perhaps, even the Chinese. Great lights may be had from the works of Zoroaster, by men of true genius, who are well skilled in the ancient languages, by comparing them with other Oriental manuscripts; and very important discoveries may be made concerning the origin of mankind, and the histories of those ages which were near the general deluge. Such of the writings of Zoroaster as still remain, speak of the creation of the universe, of the terrestrial paradise, of the dispersion of mankind, and the cause of the respect paid by the Perses, or Parfes, to fire, which they call *Athro Eboresmesdao, Son of God*. They contain also an account of the origin of evil, moral and natural; eulogiums on all the angels that were appointed to the government of the universe; many historical facts, which are more fully related in other works, written in modern Persic; they also frequently mention the kings and heroes of the first dynasty, and exhibit their chronologies; lastly, they contain predictions with respect to the latter times; several particulars relating to the end of the world, and the resurrection; some excellent moral precepts, and a very extensive ceremonial code. God is called by Zoroaster, *Menioffeneste*, which signifies a Being absorbed in excellence. Such of the Persians and Indians, who profess themselves observers of his law and worship, are thoroughly persuaded of his divine mission, and suppose that he received the book of his law from God himself, after having passed ten years at the foot of his throne.

But to return to the Bramins: it may be said as to the particulars of their science and religion, that some of them are capable of calculating an eclipse, which seems to be the utmost stretch of their mathematical knowledge. They have a good idea of logic, but it does not appear that they have any treatises on rhetoric: their ideas of music, if we may judge from the practice, are barbarous; and in medicine they derive no assistance from the knowledge of anatomy, dissections being repugnant to their religion. They shed no blood, and eat no flesh, because they believe in the transmigration of souls; they encourage wives to burn themselves with their deceased husbands, and seem to make the perfection of religion to consist in a punctual observance of numerous ceremonies performed in the
worship

worship of their gods, and in a strict attention to keep their bodies free from pollution. Hence purifications and ablutions, as dictated by their scriptures, are scrupulously observed by them, and take up no small portion of their time. A Bramin cannot eat any thing which has been prepared, or even touched by any other hand than that of a Bramin, and from the same principle cannot be married to a person of any other tribe in the kingdom, because his own tribe is the highest, even above that of the kings. They say, that they were formerly the kings of the whole country, and retain to this day the privilege of commuting capital punishment, when merited, by the loss of their eyes. To kill a Bramin is one of the five sins, for which there is scarce any expiation.

The pre-eminence of the Bramins admitted, it seems as if the Indians had determined to compensate the odium of such superiority, by forming themselves into a number of distinct tribes or gradations of people; who respectively submit to the different degrees of estimation, in which they have at last agreed to abide, as implicitly as all agree to acknowledge the superiority of the Bramins. The many temporal advantages which the Bramins derive from their spiritual authority, and the impossibility of being admitted into their tribe, have, perhaps, given rise to that number of Joquees and Facquires, who torture themselves with such various and astonishing penances, only to gain the same veneration which a Bramin derives from his birth.

The tribes into which the Indians are divided are reckoned by travellers to be eighty-four: perhaps, when India is better known, we shall find them to be many more; for there is a singular disposition in the Indian, from very trifling circumstances, to form a sect apart from the rest of his neighbours. But the order of pre-eminence of all the tribes in a particular city or province is, for the most part, indisputably decided. The Indian of an inferior tribe thinks himself honoured by being suffered to adopt the customs of a superior tribe; which, on its side, never fails to assert its prerogatives: the inferior receives the victuals prepared by a superior with respect, but the superior will not partake of a meal which has been prepared by the hands of an inferior. Marriage is circumscribed by the same bounds as the rest of their intercourse; and hence, besides the national physiognomy, the members of each tribe preserve an air of still greater resemblance to one another. Some tribes are remarkable
for

for their beauty, others for their ugliness. All these tribes acknowledge the Bramins for their priests, and with them admit transmigration. It is on account of this opinion that some afflict themselves at the death of a fly, though occasioned by their inadvertence. But the far greater number of tribes are not so scrupulous, and eat, though very sparingly, both of fish and flesh; but, like the Jews, not of all kinds indifferently. Their diet is chiefly rice, and vegetables dressed with ginger, turmeric, and other hotter spices, which grow almost spontaneously in their gardens. They esteem milk the purest of foods, because they think it partakes of some of the properties of the nectar of their gods, and because they esteem the cow itself almost a divinity.

An abhorrence to the shedding of blood, derived from his religion, and seconded by the great temperance of a life which is spent in a very sparing use of animal food, and a total abstinence from intoxicating liquors; the influence of the most regular of climates, in which the great heat of the sun and the great fertility of the soil lessen most of the wants to which the human species is subject in austerer regions, and supply the rest without the exertion of much labour; these causes and their various consequences, have all contributed to render the Indian the most enervated inhabitant of the globe. He shudders at the sight of blood, and is of a pusillanimity only to be excused and accounted for by the great delicacy of his constitution. His manners are gentle, his happiness consists in the solaces of domestic life; to which, sufficiently inclined by the climate, he is obliged by his religion, which esteems matrimony a duty indispensable in every man who does not quit the world to unite himself to God: such is their phrase. Though permitted by his religion, according to the example of his gods, to have several, he is seldom the husband of more than one wife; and this wife is of a decency of demeanor, of a solicitude in her family, and of a fidelity to her vows, which might do honour to human nature in the most civilized countries. His amusements consist in going to his pagoda, and assisting at religious shews, in fulfilling a variety of ceremonies prescribed him on all occasions by the Bramin; for, subject to a thousand lapses from the ideas he has adopted of impurity, the Indian is always offending his gods, who are not to be appeased till his priest is satisfied. But, in a country of such great extent, divided into so many distinct sovereignties, it cannot be expected that

that there should be no exceptions to one general assertion of the character of the inhabitants. There is every where in the mountains a wild inhabitant, whose bow an European can scarcely draw. There are in the woods people who subsist by their incursions into the neighbouring plains, and who, without the ferocity of the American, possess all his treachery.

The arts which furnish the conveniencies of life have been carried by the Indians to a pitch far beyond what is necessary to supply the wants of a climate which knows so few. At the same time no ideas of taste or fine design have existed amongst them; and we seek in vain for elegance in the magnificence of the richest empire of the globe. Their knowledge of mechanical powers is so very confined, that we are left to admire, without being able to account for, the manner in which they have erected their capital pagodas. It does not appear that they had ever made a bridge of arches over any of their rivers, before the Mohammedans came amongst them. It is to the suppleness with which the whole frame of an Indian is endowed, and which is still more remarkable in the formation of his hand, that we are indebted for the exquisite perfection of their manufactures. The same instruments which an Indian employs to make a piece of fine muslin, would, under the rigid fingers of an European, scarcely produce a piece of canvass. Thus, not content with the presents which nature has showered on their climate, the Indians have made improvements when they felt no necessities. They have cultivated the various and valuable productions of their soil, not to the measure of their own, but to that of the wants of all other nations; they have carried their manufactures to a perfection which surpasses the most exquisite productions of Europe, and have encouraged with avidity the annual tributes of gold and silver which the rest of the world contest for the privilege of sending to them. They have from time immemorial been as addicted to commerce, as they are averse to war. They have therefore always been immensely rich, and have always remained incapable of defending their wealth.

The Mohammedan princes of India naturally gave a preference to the service of men of their own religion, who, from whatever country they came, were of a more vigorous constitution than the stoutest of the subjected nation. This preference has continually encouraged adventurers from Tartary, Persia, and Arabia, to seek their fortunes

Arts and manufactures of the Indians.

State of the Mohammedans of Indostan, compared with that of the original natives.

fortunes under a government, from which they were sure of receiving greater encouragement than they could expect at home. However, though the present Mohammedans in India may be computed at near ten millions, they are still out-numbered by the Indians ten to one; and this inferiority of number has obliged the Mohammedans to leave many rajas, or Indian princes, in possession of their respective sovereignties, which they are permitted to govern without molestation, on condition that they pay the stipulated tribute, and do not infringe any of the articles of the treaties by which they or their ancestors have acknowledged the sovereignty of the great Mogul. Besides the Indians who reside in the territories of the rajas, there are every where great numbers in those parts of the country which are immediately subject to the great Mogul without the interposition of an Indian prince to govern them. They are the only cultivators of the land, and the only manufacturers of the immense quantities of cloths which are made in the empire. It is rare to see in the villages or fields a Mohammedan employed in any thing except levying contributions or acting in some other respects as an officer of the great Mogul.

In all the countries absolutely subjected, the great Mogul styles himself proprietor of all the lands, and parcels them out at will as revenues for life to his feudatories; but still these grants take not away from the cultivator the right of sale and bequest. The policy of all the Indian governments of Indostan, as well as that of the great Mogul, seems to consist more in a perpetual attention to prevent any one family from obtaining great possessions, than in the intention of making slaves of the body of the people; for such a slavery would soon leave the monarch little grandeur to boast of, and few subjects to command.

It has been observed, that all the Mohammedans established in India acquire, in the third generation, the indolence and pusillanimity of the original inhabitants, and, at the same time, a cruelty of character to which the Indians are happily strangers. Hence we are almost induced to give assent to the opinion, that the prohibition of shedding blood of any kind, inculcated by the Indian religion, was a political institution, wisely calculated to change into gentler manners the sanguinary disposition, which is said to have characterized all the inhabitants of Indostan before the religion of Brama was introduced among them.

The British establishments in the kingdom of Indostan are divided into three governments, independent of each other. Bombay commands the factories on the western side of the peninsula, commonly called the Malabar Coast, together with those in Persia: the establishments and possessions on the eastern or Coromandel coast are under the government of Madras; and those in Bengal depend on Calcutta. From the year 1745, to the conclusion of the peace of 1763, the English have been continually engaged in war, in one or other of these divisions; and the preservation of their commerce in the East Indies absolutely depended on the conduct and success of the wars of Coromandel and Bengal. The French were beaten by them out of all their settlements; the treacherous designs of the Dutch were prevented; great armies of Indians were totally defeated: in short, there was no part of the world in which the British arms had, at that period, acquired more honour. It is not our business to discuss the merits of the revolution of Bengal that was brought about towards the close of the war in those parts, nor of the contests that have since arisen concerning the misbehaviour of the succeeding nabobs: these particulars are variously agitated; but the peaceful condition of the province, by the reinstating of Jaffier Aly Cawn, in whose favour the revolution was first brought about, and the sending over lord Clive, seem to make here any observations on those events unnecessary, and likewise on what since has happened. We shall therefore proceed to the other part of India, which is called the Farther India, or the peninsula beyond the Ganges.

*British
establish-
ments in
Indostan.*

We should in vain seek for any lights, with respect to this country, in the writings of the ancients. They had no idea of it in the time of Alexander, and only knew it by the report of those whom trade or curiosity had incited to undertake so long and dangerous a voyage. All of them, astonished at the greatness and rapidity of the Ganges, which has not its equal in Asia, imagined it was the Pison, one of the four rivers of the terrestrial paradise. Josephus is the first whom we know to have mentioned this; and he has been followed by many fathers of the church, commentators on Scripture, and modern divines. It is difficult to determine whether foreigners or Indians have given rise to this notion. All we know is that the latter entertain great reverence for the waters of the Ganges. From a persuasion that they deface all the

*India be-
yond the
Ganges,
&c. de-
scribed.*

Ganges.

spots of sin, they go in crouds from the remotest parts of the country to wash in them. The reason of this is, because they imagine this river does not take its source from the bosom of the earth, but that it descends from heaven into the paradise of Devendre, and from thence into Indostan. Nothing is more childish than the fables related by the Bramins on this subject; yet the confidence of the people is what gives them all their authority. The Mogul and the prince of Golconda drink no other water but that of the Ganges; foreigners, on the contrary, pretend that it is very unhealthy, and that it cannot be drank, unless first boiled. There are a great number of superb pagodas on the banks of this river, some of which are immensely rich. At certain festivals, which last several days, there has sometimes been a concourse of one hundred thousand people, who come to bathe. But the great virtue of this river, and the only one which renders it valuable is, that it washes down gold in its sands, and throws it on its banks; that it is placed in the first rank of those rivers which produce precious stones; that the gulf of Bengal, into which it discharges itself, abounds in pearls and valuable stones; and that the Ganges is looked upon as the origin of them.

*Extent and
divisions of
the penin-
sula be-
yond the
Ganges.*

The peninsula beyond the Ganges stretches its whole length into the sea, and modern geographers give it five hundred and thirty leagues from north to south, and three hundred and sixty from east to west, its greatest breadth. It is divided into three parts: the north, in which are the kingdoms of Acham, or Azem, Ava, Pegu, Laos, and some others little known; the south, which contains those of Siam and Malaya; the east, which comprehends those of Tonquin, Cochin-china, and Camboia.

*Kingdom
of Azem.*

The kingdom of Azem lies to the east of the great Mogul's dominions, to the north of the kingdom of Ava, and to the west of the lake Chiamay. It was hardly known before Mirgimola, general of Aurengzebe, conquered it, about the middle of the last century. He undertook this expedition with the more confidence, as that country had been without any wars for the space of six or seven hundred years, and the people had entirely neglected the use of arms. It was not difficult to conquer such a people; yet tradition attributes to them the invention of gunpowder, which passed from Azem to Pegu, and from Pegu to China, which has given occasion to say, that the Chinese were the authors of that discovery.

very. It is said, that, in that war, Mirgimola had taken several pieces of cannon, which were all of iron.

This kingdom is one of the best in Asia, and produces every thing that is necessary for the sustenance of man. Mines of gold, silver, steel, lead, and iron, are found here, the property of which the king has reserved for himself, on condition of not levying any subsidies on his people; and, in order not to harass them by any unseemly labour, he employs none but slaves purchased from his neighbours, to work them. Thus all the inferior subjects of Azem enjoy themselves in ease and affluence, which is not the case with the rest of the Indians, who have scarce any thing but slavery and misery for their portion, in the midst of a country where they ought to live in riches and plenty. The princes reside in the city of Kemmerouf, about twenty-five or thirty days journey from the ancient capital, which bore the same name; but their tombs and those of all the royal family are in the city of Azoo, on the banks of the river Laquia. Every prince builds a kind of chapel in the great pagoda, to serve for his burial-place; and being persuaded that after their death they go to another world, and that those who die sullied by any crime, suffer a great deal, chiefly by hunger and thirst, they place all necessaries near the corpse, to serve them as they may want. The king is interred with those idols of gold and silver which he worshipped in his life-time, a live elephant, twelve camels, six horses, and a great number of hounds, in the belief that all these things will be useful to him in the other world. Barbarity accompanies superstition in this funeral solemnity. At the king's death, the woman whom he has loved best, and the principal officers of his household, poison themselves, that they may have the glory of being interred with him, and of serving him in a future state. If a private person, all his friends and relations must assist at his funeral; and every one must throw into the grave the bracelets and other ornaments he wears.

The accounts of those who have travelled into the East, *Kingdom of Ava.* give us little or no information about the kingdom of Ava, which is said to be four times as large as Great Britain. They only tell us that the prince is immensely rich, which appears by the magnificence of his palace.

All that historians relate of the kingdom of Pegu is *Kingdom of Pegu.* drawn from Gaspar Balbi, a rich Venetian merchant, who once traded thither. According to him that kingdom had been exposed to several revolts, and had been the theatre

of a bloody war during all the sixteenth century. The Peguans may be ranked amongst the nastiest and most superstitious of all mankind. They maintain and worship crocodiles, and will drink nothing but the waters of the ditches where those monstrous animals harbour. By thus exposing themselves to the manifest hazard of their lives, they have frequently the misfortune to be devoured. They have five principal festivals in the year, called sapsans, which they celebrate with an extraordinary magnificence. In one of them the king and queen make a pilgrimage about twelve leagues from the city, riding on a triumphal car, so richly adorned with jewels, that it may be said, without an hyperbole, that they carry about them the value of a kingdom. This prince is extremely rich, and has in the chapel of his palace several pagods of inestimable value, some of them being of massy gold, or silver, and adorned with all sorts of precious stones. The talapoints, or priests of this country, have no possessions; but such is the respect paid them by the people, that they are never known to want. They preach to them every Monday, not to commit murder, to take from no person any thing belonging to him, to do no hurt, to give no offence, to avoid impurity or superstition, but above all not to worship the devil. But their discourses have no effect in the last respect. The people attached to Manichæism believe, that all good comes from God, and that the devil is the author of all the evils that happen to men; and that therefore they ought to worship him, that he may not afflict them. This is a common notion among the Indian idolaters.

*Kingdom of
Laos,*

There is no country, where more ivory is to be had than in the kingdom of Laos, or Lao. Elephants are so numerous in it, that the inhabitants are said to have taken their name from them; many kinds of animals, as oxen and buffaloes, which are here very common; a great quantity of benzoin, the best in the East; lacca, being a kind of earth met with in some forests, lying about ant-hills; garden fruits, vast quantities of rice, fish of an enormous bulk with which the rivers abound, and salt spontaneously formed of a kind of foam which the great rains leave upon the earth, are the other advantages of this kingdom. Nothing can be more senseless than the whims with which the priests here have possessed the people, and which they give out as the foundation of their religion. This is, that a buffalo, or wild ox, which nature had formed with all imaginable defects, produced a gourd full

of black and white men; and that there are four gods who governed the world eighteen thousand years before it was renewed, and who afterwards retired into a very large and spacious column, which was raised towards the north. Such visions, accompanied with corrupt morals, could only render the people as vicious as their priests, if the severity of the law did not put a restraint on their licentiousness. The propensity which the Laoangians have to passion and bloodshed, has forced their kings to punish, not only those who give a blow, but even those who shew anger against another. Nay, frequently to inspire the greater terror, the innocent is involved in the punishment of the guilty. If the chief of a family is convicted of any great crime, all who belong to him in the different degrees of consanguinity are degraded, and deprived of their offices, rights, and privileges; and, for the future, are employed in nothing but the service of the elephants, as gathering grass for them, carrying it to the king's stables, and watching them all night.

To the south of those countries lies the kingdom of Siam, the most famous of all the Indies. The Portuguese have given the name of Siam to the capital of the kingdom, which the natives call Crung si ayn, thaya', that is, *the excellent city, or, the admirable, extraordinary, and angelic city*, because they believe it impregnable. It is built on the river Menan, which means *the sea of waters*, and forms an island two leagues in circuit. The place is besides every where surrounded with a strong wall, and has within itself resources sufficient to support a siege of many months against an army fifty thousand strong. The chief of these resources is an infallible succour from the overflowing of the river every six months; so that there are no lines which it does not carry off, nor army which it does not oblige to retire. By means of those waters, they have made several canals, which run through all the streets, without doing any damage; and there are few houses to which there is not access to with a boat. The convenience of transporting their effects and landing them quite from the sea at the warehouses, with the other advantages of the kingdom, have drawn traders thither from all parts. At first the Portuguese were masters of the commerce; but some insults offered to the Indians and Dutch merchants gave the latter a pretence to declare themselves their enemies; and in 1634 they built one of the finest lodges they have in the East. Notwithstanding, the Portuguese were not intirely expelled; they have still factories there

Kingdom of Siam.

as well as the English, French, Chinese, and some others, who all dwell in the two vast and rich suburbs which lie to the east and west of the city. Here it is that some modern travellers relate that they have seen immense treasures of all kinds. The riches of the country are chiefly displayed in the pagodas, and the prince's palace, by the quantity of workmanship in gold with which they are adorned; by their prodigious bulk, their admirable structure, and the incredible collections of precious stones of all kinds. However, all this kingdom, which is very large, is nothing better than a desert. In proportion as one advances into the country, scarce any thing is seen but forests and wild beasts. The people, who are miserable, dwell on the banks of the rivers, and prefer that situation to any other, because the lands, which are overflowed six months in the year, produce, almost without any culture, great quantities of rice, which does not thrive but in water. In this rice consist all the riches of the country. Thus in going up from Bancok to Luvo, is seen, with respect to the people and the cities, all that can merit any attention in this kingdom. Haughtiness, despotism, and an absolute government, are the only marks by which the prince chuses to be distinguished from all other sovereigns. The respect which he demands of his people reaches almost to adoration, and the posture in which they must appear in his presence is a testimony of it. Even in council, which lasts sometimes four hours, the ministers of state, and the mandarins, are continually prostrated before him. They never speak to him but on their knees, having their hands raised to their heads, making every moment profound reverences, and accompanying their discourse with pompous titles, celebrating his power and his goodness. When he goes abroad, all are obliged to keep within doors. His subjects are slaves, who possess nothing but what belongs to him. Even nobility is not hereditary, consisting only in honours and employments, which the prince bestows, and which he may withdraw whenever he pleases.

*Kingdom of
Malacca.*

The king of Siam's dominions stretch southward to the neighbourhood of Ligor, where the kingdom of Malacca begins. This country is that peninsula or tongue of land which lies between the streight of that name and the gulf of Siam. Some travellers assure us, that it is divided into seven kingdoms, every one of which may be about ten leagues in breadth, and thirty in length. It was discovered in 1509, by Seguera; and in 1511, by Alphonso Albuquerque,

buquerque, who made himself master of the city of Malacca. The Dutch, supported by the forces of the king of Thor, in 1606, began to disturb the Portuguese in their possession, and after thirty-five years of continual hostilities, took it from them in 1641.

The inhabitants of Malacca, or the Malais, are, for the most part, savages, and live after the manner of beasts. The heat of the climate, which is almost under the line, renders their colour extremely swarthy; and they are very fond of Europeans on account of their whiteness. As soon as they arrive on their coasts, they offer them their wives and daughters, that they may have children like them. Notwithstanding the barbarity of their manners, their language is reckoned the finest in all the Indies, where it is at least as common as the French in Europe. It is very easily acquired, because it has no inflections, either in nouns or verbs. The country is rich only on account of its commerce with the Chinese: it must then have been through ignorance or mistake, that the ancients gave it the name of the Golden Chersonese; or rather it is evident they did not give it to that kingdom. Yet we are told by some missionaries, that they reckon their riches by bars of gold, and that every bar contains four quintals.

On the south and west by the sea, and the dominions of the king of Siam, lies the kingdom of Cambogia. *Kingdom of Cambogia.* This country, which throughout its whole extent is watered by the river Mecon, produces in abundance all that is necessary for the life of man, whether in rice or flesh, in coconuts, or fruits of all other kinds. Yet it is ill-peopled, and its trade inconsiderable. The capital of the same name, is the only place which deserves notice. The prince resides in a very ordinary palace, but it is defended by a great number of Chinese cannon, and other pieces of artillery which were saved from the wreck of two Dutch vessels thrown upon the coast of this kingdom. There is a temple here of a very particular structure, whose beauty is much commended. It is supported by wooden pillars varnished with black; the foliages and reliefs are gilded: even the pavement is valuable, and is preserved by mats laid over it. The priests who serve in it hold the first rank in the state,

The use of betel is not peculiar to the people of this country; nothing is so common throughout the Indies, *Use of betel in Indi* and bread is not more so in other places of the world. It is a plant which creeps along the ground like pease or hops;

and its stalk being weak, it must be supported by a prop, or planted near the tree areca, to which it fixes itself like ivy. Its leaf resembles that of the citron-tree, though a little longer; its stalks and fibres are also stronger, and it becomes reddish when dried. Betel thrives best in watery places, such as the banks of the sea or rivers. There it bears a fruit shaped like a rat's tail, but produces none in climates too hot or too cold, where the inhabitants must be contented with the leaf, which is prepared with the fruit of the areca, and a little lime made of oyster-shells. An Indian is seldom seen without betel in his mouth. As soon as any one goes into a house on business, or to make a visit, it is brought and presented to the company by way of compliment. When foreign ambassadors are admitted to an audience of the king, they find him commonly reposing on his couch, or seated cross-legged on a carpet on the ground, with an officer in waiting, who holds his betel, which he chews continually, throwing out the husks and the saliva which it produces. The greatest honour he can do them is to invite them to taste his betel. The Indians say it fastens the gums, preserves the teeth, makes the breath sweet, is good for the stomach, promotes digestion, prevents wind and vomiting, to which they are very subject, and lastly, prevents the scurvy. Notwithstanding all those real or imaginary properties, few Europeans can accustom themselves to it. In many it occasions sickness, others it perfectly intoxicates, but so as not to last long.

*Use of the
areca.*

The areca, which is used with the leaves of the betel, is from a tree nearly resembling the cocoa in height and shape, except that its trunk is smaller, and its leaves shorter. From beneath the leaves there proceeds a long mass, which forms a bunch or cluster of fruit like nuts or apricots: the flowers lie intermingled with the fruit. Two months after the flowers fall off, the husks which cover the fruit, begin to open and fall off: then an oblong fruit appears, of the bulk of a middling plum, and of a whitish and shining colour; its shell becomes firm, compact, and reddish; the pulp contained in it is of a brown cast, bordering on red, and soft and astringent to the taste. The Indians prepare the pulp, or kernel, of this fruit with the leaves of the betel, dividing a nut into eight or ten parts.

*Kingdom of
Ciampa and
Cochin-china.*

South-east of the kingdom of Camboia lies that of Ciampa, but so small, that it has not merited the particular attention of travellers. It is bounded on the north by the deserts

defarts of Cochin-china, another kingdom, of which authors have given us a notion more splendid than real. We ought, therefore, to prefer the simple and ingenuous account of F. Alexander of Rhodes, a Jesuit, and famous missionary in those parts. This kingdom, according to him, was formerly a province of China, and was separated from it now upwards of two centuries ago, by the revolt of a governor sent thither by the king of Tonquin, who caused himself to be declared king. There is no country in the torrid zone wherein the four seasons are better distinguished. Though the rivers are not considerable, they are sources of its plenty. During the months of September, October, and November, they rise every fortnight, overflow all the fields for three days, and render them so fertile by their slime, that they can sow and reap twice a year. The soil produces rice, several sorts of fruits and herbs, pepper, cinnamon, benzoin, eagle and calemba-wood. Gold, silver, silk, cotton, and porcelain, are likewise to be found here. Amongst other rare animals, are rhinoceroses and elephants, of an extraordinary size and surprising docility. The sea abounds with excellent fish. There are sixty good harbours, which occasion the inhabitants to apply themselves much to trade and navigation; that of Faiso is one of the most considerable. The city is inhabited by Chinese and Japanese, who carry on a free trade under the protection of the prince. It is defended by a fortress, and situated on a navigable river, a little above its mouth.

Northward of Cochin-china lies the kingdom of *Kingdom of Tonquin.* The voyages to this place which religion and commerce have given occasion to, have procured us a very circumstantial knowledge of the government and nature of this country. Tonquin had been heretofore subject to the vast empire of China, when a famous robber, called Din, put himself at the head of a body of men of his own profession, into whom he inspired the resolution of taking up arms, and throwing off the yoke of all servitude. He succeeded; and those whom he engaged in the revolt, out of gratitude, placed the crown upon his head. The happiness which the Tonquinese flattered themselves to have acquired by their independence, became to them a source of miseries and cruel wars, still more pernicious than their former subjection to the Chinese emperors. For seven centuries after their revolt, they were almost continually in arms, one against another, in support of the different factions which ambition and jealousy had raised up among them;

them; and the families on the throne have been already changed six times.

The issue of the last civil war was a treaty, by which the competitor of the king Le, less desirous of the title of sovereign than of real power and royal authority, left him all the external splendor of a monarch, on condition that he should have the absolute command in the armies, with the greatest part of the revenues of the kingdom, and that his descendants should succeed to the same privileges. By virtue of this agreement, there are two sorts of kings; he who receives all the honours of royalty is called Bua, and the Chouah has all its advantages. The Bua, sensible of the diminution of his power, is seldom seen out of his palace. He is taken up almost every day in giving audience to his subjects, hearing their complaints, and determining their private differences; which is the utmost extent of his power, for he can set forth no act or edict concerning the public government, without the consent of the Chouah. The princes, his sons, partake of his servitude: they never go out of the palace but four times a year, and that only six days each time; and they are, besides, attended by officers whom the Chouah appoints for them. In the first of those six days of liberty, they visit the temples; the two following they take the diversion of hunting; and, during the three last, they sail upon the river in galleys magnificently adorned. The right of primogeniture does not regulate the succession to the crown; the will of the father decides it in favour of him whom he loves or esteems most. As soon as he is declared, the Chouah, followed by his principal officers, the counsellors of state, and the eunuchs, do him homage, and take an oath to place him on the throne after his father's death.

The pomp and magnificence of the ceremonies observed at the king's funeral, are very extraordinary. During the sixty-five days that follow his decease, he is served as if still alive, and provisions are distributed amongst the bonzes and poor. The whole nation puts on mourning, and every one wears it according to his rank; the mandarins for three years, the king's household nine months, the noblesse six, and the people three. These three years are times of sadness, during which no rejoicings are allowed, except at the coronation of the succeeding prince. The custom is to carry the body of the dead king into the deserts lying beyond Bodego. It is two days journey from Keco, the capital of the kingdom, to that city. But, as
the

the king and all the court go thither on foot, it takes them up fifteen or sixteen days. All the road is covered with a stuff of a violet colour, and at every quarter of a league there are places for refreshment. The Chouah takes care that there shall be lodgings for every day. In the midst of an immense and magnificent retinue of officers, horses, and elephants, is the chariot which carries the king's coffin, drawn by eight harts trained for that purpose. After the corps comes to Bodego, it is put into a galley, and is attended only by the six principal eunuchs of the court, who inter it in a remote place, after having obliged themselves by oath never to reveal it. This secrecy is, perhaps, an article of religion, or a precaution to prevent the treasures buried with him from being carried off, which they imagine he may have an occasion for in the other world. It is said, that the princes and princesses order themselves to be buried near him, out of a motive of gratitude, and that they may continue to render him their services.

After this funeral ceremony comes on the coronation of the new king, which diffuses pleasures and diversions over the city of Keco and the country about. He is carried upon an elephant into the great court of the palace, which is covered with rich tapestries in form of a tent, and there he receives the oath of fidelity from the great men of the kingdom, to whom he makes a present of several cakes of gold, and small bars of silver, the only money used in this country. Afterwards, a large camp is erected in the midst of a vast plain along the river Chale. The king goes thither with all the officers of his household, and a great part of the army, and there receives the oaths of the deputies of his kingdom, and of the people. One half of the month passes away in rejoicings; every day is remarkable for the diversity of festivals, and the generosity of the prince; even the darkness of the night is not unemployed; for then the amusement of various scenes of fireworks charm the senses, which are said to be infinitely finer and more curious than those we have in Europe.

This particular species of ingenuity as well as many others, are a consequence of the emulation which the kings of Tonquin, like those of China, have encouraged amongst their subjects, in order to refine and improve all the sciences. Nobility, with suitable revenues, is the reward of those who excel in the knowledge of the laws, of
{mathematics,

mathematics, astronomy, and natural philosophy. Several days in the year are set apart for the examination of those who present themselves, and sometimes there are near three thousand candidates. The king honours this ceremony with his presence; he confers nobility on those who have given satisfaction to the questions of the mandarins; he orders a robe of violet sattin to be given them, and appoints the cities and villages which are to produce the revenues he is pleased to assign them.

The physicians are another class of the learned, and much esteemed; all their study is to know simples, and to apply them according to the different distempers. They pretend to infallible remedies for several diseases thought to be incurable in Europe. They make use of tea, which is brought from China and Japan, for the cure of pains in the head, the stone, and cholic.

Where the arts flourish, it seldom happens that the manners of the people are rough and unpolished. The Tonquinese are affable, and naturally formed to the laws of reason. The gravity and modesty of their garb, shews their character. Both sexes are clothed almost in the same manner: their dress is a long robe, pretty strait, with a close neck, reaching down to the heels, and kept tight about the waist with a silk girdle of gold and silver tissue: the military dress comes no farther than the knees. It is the common custom of the country to go barefooted all the year. The Tonquinese ladies are as modest and reserved as the common women are free; they wear a sort of very broad hat, made of the leaves of a tree, and adorned with a net-work of thread curiously wrought. They wear their hair as long as it will grow, and dress it with great care; the men tie it under the neck, or leave it loose behind, especially the mandarins and learned men. They are of a strong and hardy constitution, their stature middling and well-proportioned, their features just and agreeable. Those who live in the cities are rather white than brown, but the country people are almost all olive-coloured. All are indefatigable in whatever business they apply to. Their judgment is just, and they are capable of long application. Nature has blessed them with so happy a memory, that, perhaps, there is no nation which surpasses them in that particular; whatever they study or write, all is done singing, in order to imprint it the better on their minds. They still make use of lunar months. The lower class of people are
slaves

slaves during one part of the year; for, except the citizens of Keco, all tradesmen whatever are obliged to work three months for the royal family, and two more for the mandarins and great lords. One of their most laborious employments is to lop the trees for feeding the elephants belonging to the king and the army. Their principal riches consist in great quantities of silk, mulk, and aloes-wood, which they sell to foreigners: they value themselves much on their fairness in trade, which is the more surprising, as they are neighbours to the Chinese, and have frequent dealings with that cunning people, who are versed in all manner of deceit.

These are the advantageous lights in which the Tonquinese appear; but, when we take a view of their worship, the scene is changed: nothing is seen but error, impiety, and extravagant superstition. Of the three sects into which they are divided, that of a hermit, called Chachabout, might be considered as the only reasonable one, by the observation of the precepts of the law of nature, of which he has made ten express commandments, if it was not corrupted by imaginations and chimeras founded on the metempsychosis, and if it did not bring up its votaries in idolatry. The second is, that of the philosopher Confucius, whose memory is so famous throughout China, and the neighbouring states. The doctrine of his books, as explained by the learned men of this country, is nothing but idolatry, or, perhaps, a refined atheism, acknowledging no other God but the heavens, or virtue, and supposing, that the human soul evaporates into air at death. The third sect is, that of Lanthu, originally a Chinese, whose whole study was the contriving of enchantments, and the impostures of magic, which he unhappily rendered respected by a false outside of zeal and charity for the poor. Most of the bonzes, or Tonquinese priests, offer no sacrifices, and give no responses till they have consulted the devil by some magic charms, or ceremonies, all tending to that wicked purpose.

We now come to the Indian and Oriental islands, which consist of, 1. The Ladrone Islands. 2. The Japan Islands. 3. The Philippine Islands. 4. The Moluccas and Amboyna. 5. The Banda Islands. 6. The islands of Celebes, Gilolo, Ceram, &c. which surround the Moluccas, and Banda Islands. 7. The Sunda Islands, as Borneo, Sumatra, and Java, and those that lie to the eastward of Java,

*Indian and
Oriental
Islands.*

Java, Bally, Lomboe, Timor, &c. 8. The Nicobar Islands. 9. The Andaman Islands. 10. The Maldiva Islands. And 11. The island of Ceylon.

*Ladrone
Islands.*

The Ladrone, called also the Marian Islands, are about twelve in number; they are situate in the Pacific Ocean, in 140 degrees of east longitude, and between 12 and 24 degrees of north latitude. Guam, the largest, is forty miles long, and twelve broad. The Spaniards have a fort, and a small garrison of thirty or forty men, in the chief town of the same name; and most ships touch here in their voyage from Mexico to the East Indies. These islands were discovered by Magellan, in his voyage to the Spice-Islands, in India, by the west, in the year 1521. They are remarkable for producing a fruit as big as a football, which yields a soft pulp like the crumb of a white loaf, and is therefore called bread-fruit by seamen. Their swift-sailing sloops, going generally twenty-four miles in an hour, is another peculiarity. One of them that was dispatched to Manila in the Philippine Islands performed the voyage in four days, being one thousand two hundred miles. It was at the little island of Tinian, situate north of Guam, that lord Anson first touched, after passing the Pacific Ocean, in his voyage round the world. He found great refreshments in it, the island, though uninhabited, abounding in cattle, fruits, and other necessaries. The Japan Islands may be seen described in the same section with China.

*Philippine
Islands.*

The Philippine Islands are situate in the Chinesian Sea, between 114 and 131 degrees of east longitude, and between 5 and 19 degrees of north latitude; comprehending the islands of Luconia, or Manila, Tandaga, or Samar, Masbate, Mindora, Luban, Paragoa, Panay, Leyte, Bohol, Sibuyan, Sogbu, Negros, St. John, Xollo, and Mindanao. They lie three hundred miles south-east of China: and Manila, the chief, is four hundred miles long, and two hundred miles broad. They were discovered by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese gentleman, who had served his native country both in the wars of Africa and in the East Indies; particularly under Albuquerque, the famous Portuguese general, who reduced Goa and Malacca to the obedience of that crown. Magellan, having a considerable share in those actions, and finding himself neglected by the government of Portugal, and even denied, as it is said, the small advance of a ducat a month in his pay, left the court of Portugal in disgust, and offered his service to Charles V. then emperor of Germany and king of Spain,

Spain, to whom he shewed there was a probability of discovering a way to the Spice Islands in the East Indies, by the west: whereupon, the command of five small ships being given him, he set sail from Seville on the 10th of August, 1519; and standing over to the coast of South America, continued his voyage to the southward to 52 degrees, where he formerly hit upon a strait, since called the Strait of Magellan, which carried him into the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea; and then, steering northward, repassed the equator; after which, he sailed west over that vast ocean, till he arrived at Guam, one of the Ladrões, on the 6th of March, 1521, and soon after came to the Philippine Islands, which he took possession of in the name of the king of Spain, but happened to be killed in a skirmish in one of them. His people, however, arrived afterwards at the Moluccas, or Clove Islands, where they left a colony, and returned to Spain, by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, being the first men that ever sailed round the globe. But there was no attempt made by the Spaniards to subdue, or plant, the Philippine Islands, until the year 1564, in the reign of Philip II. king of Spain, when don Lewis de Velasco, viceroy of Mexico, sent Michael Lopez Delagaspes, with a fleet thither from Mexico, and a force sufficient to make a conquest of these islands, which he named the Philippines, in honour of Philip II. son of Charles V. who was then upon the throne of Spain, and they have ever since been subject to that crown.

In the late war, Spain having entered into engagements with France, in consequence of the family-compact of the house of Bourbon, it was found expedient in England to declare war also against Spain; whereupon a force was fitted out from our East India settlements, particularly Madras, for the conquest of the Philippine Islands. Manila, the capital, was taken on the 6th of October, 1762, by storm, after twelve days operation; but to save so fine a city from destruction, it was stipulated to pay a ransom for it, to the amount of a million sterling.

The inhabitants of the Philippine Islands consist of Chinese, Ethiopians, Malais, Spaniards, Portuguese, Pintadoes, or painted people, and Mestees, a mixture of all these. It is observable, that the features of the blacks of these islands are as agreeable as those of the white people. Manila, lying between the eastern and western continents, was once esteemed the best situation in the world for trade.

Two

Two vessels sailing yearly to Acapulco in Mexico, loaded with the riches of the East, returned, as they do at this day, freighted with silver, and make four hundred per cent. profit. There is not a soil in the world that produces greater plenty of all things necessary for life, as appears by the multitude of inhabitants found in the woods and mountains, and only subsisted on the fruits of the earth, and the venison they take. Nor can any country in the world appear more beautiful; for there is a perpetual verdure, and buds, blossoms, and fruit, are found upon the trees all the year round, as well on the mountains as the cultivated gardens. Vast quantities of gold are washed down from the hills by the rains, and found mixed with the sand of their rivers: there are also mines of other metals, and plenty of cattle of all sorts. These islands also, being hot and moist, produce abundance of venomous creatures, as the soil does poisonous herbs and flowers, which not only kill those that touch or taste them, but so infect the air, that many people die in the time of their blossoming. They are also subject to terrible earthquakes: by one that happened in 1645, a third part of the city of Manila was overthrown, and no less than three thousand people perished in the ruins. The Spanish viceroy resides at Manila, and lives in the state of a sovereign prince. The government is said to be one of the best in the gift of the king of Spain: the archbishop of Manila is a kind of pope in this part of the world; but as the inhabitants are a compound of every Indian nation, every religion is tolerated.

All the Philippine Islands belong to the crown of Spain, except Mindanao, the largest of them next to Manila. It is near two hundred miles long, and one hundred and fifty miles broad, inhabited by very different people; those of the inland country are supposed to be the ancient Pagan inhabitants, whom the Mohammedans, who possess the coasts, have driven up into the mountains.

*Molucca,
or Clove
Islands.*

The Moluccas, or Clove Islands, are situate south of the Philippines, in 125 degrees of east longitude, and between 1 degree south, and 2 degrees north latitude, comprehending the islands of Bachiam, Machiam, Motyr, Ternate, and Tydor. They produce neither corn nor rice, but the natives make bread of sago. Besides the tropical fruits, they once produced great quantities of cloves; but the Dutch send people every year to root up all the plants of that kind, lest other nations should possess

fects them, and have transplanted the cloves to Amboyna, which lies south of the island of Ceram. The largest of the Molucca Islands is Ternate, which is not thirty miles in circumference.

The Banda, or Nutmeg Islands, are situated between 127 and 128 degrees of east longitude, and between 4 and 5 degrees of south latitude, comprehending the islands of Lantor, Poleron, Rosinging, Pooloway, and Gonapi. These alone produce the nutmeg, which is covered by the mace: they also produce most of the tropical fruits, but scarce any corn or cattle; the largest of them is scarce twenty miles round. The Dutch keep the inhabitants entirely dependent on them for provisions.

The islands surrounding the Moluccas and Banda, and lying under, or near the equator, are, Amboyna, Celebes, or Macassar, Gilolo, Ceram, Flores, Timor, Misecomby, Bouton, Bouro, and a few others.

Amboyna is situated in 126 degrees of east longitude, and 3 degrees 40 minutes of south latitude, between the islands of Molucca and Banda, and commands both. It is about seventy miles in circumference, and the Dutch have a strong castle in it, defended by seven or eight hundred men, to protect their plantations of cloves. Here the English and Dutch had their respective factories and settlements, and had by treaty agreed to divide the Spice Islands between them; but the Dutch, under pretence of a plot the English were concerned in against them, seized upon the English factors and merchants, tortured them by all the cruel methods they could invent, in order to make them confess a plot, and then put them to death. They also seized upon the English shipping, expelled the English from their settlements in the Banda Islands, which had put themselves under the protection of the king of Great Britain, and proceeded to massacre and extirpate the natives, and this in a time of full peace, in the year 1622, just after a treaty was concluded between the two nations for confirming their respective rights and possessions in the East-Indies; and they have continued in possession of these invaluable islands ever since.

The island of Celebes, or Macassar, is situated under the equator, between the island of Borneo, and the Spice Islands; and is five hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. It produces no spice, except pepper, but opium in abundance. No place is furnished with a greater variety of poisons; and the natives, it is said, study which will have the most speedy operation. Their

*Banda
Islands.*

*Islands sur-
rounding
the Moluc-
cas and
Banda.*

Amboyna.

*Celebes,
Gilolo,
Ceram, &c.*

darts, which are dipt in poison, give instant death ; if a limb be cut off immediately after the wound is received, it will not save the patient's life. The Dutch have fortified this island, as a barrier against all nations that may attempt to visit the islands where cloves and nutmegs grow. Gilolo, another large island, which lies under the equator, near the Spice Islands, is fortified by the Dutch in like manner. Ceram also, which covers the nutmeg islands, they have secured by their fortifications, and will sink any ship that shall attempt to traffic in those seas.

*Sunda
Islands.*

The Sunda Islands are situate in the Indian Ocean, between 93 and 120 degrees of east longitude, and between 8 degrees north, and 8 degrees south latitude, comprehending the islands of Borneo, Sumatra, Java, Bally, Lamboe, and Banca.

Borneo.

Borneo is situate under the equator, and is the largest island in the world, being eight hundred miles long, and seven hundred miles broad. The flat country near the coast is overflowed most part of the year, which makes the air very unhealthful ; and they build their towns upon floats in the middle of their rivers. Besides rice, cotton, canes, pepper, and the tropical fruits, diamonds are here found of a large size, and excellent water. The coast is governed by Mohammedan princes, and the inland parts inhabited by Pagans.

Sumatra.

Sumatra is divided into two equal parts by the equator, extending 5 degrees and upwards north-west of it, and 5 degrees to the south-east ; and is one thousand miles long, and one hundred and fifty broad. This is supposed to be the Ophir of the ancients, being rich in gold ; but what the Europeans trade with the inhabitants chiefly for is their pepper. Both the English and Dutch have several colonies and settlements here : the chief of the British settlements are those of Bencoolen and Fort Marlbro', on the west coast, from whence the East-India company import more pepper than from any other country in India. Bencoolen was taken by the French, who put the Dutch in possession of it ; but the definitive treaty of peace in 1763, recovered it for the English. The coasts are possessed by Mohammedan, and the inland country by Pagan princes.

Java.

Java, situate south of Borneo, is seven hundred miles long, and two hundred broad. The country is mountainous and woody in the middle, but a flat coast and a great many marshes render the air unhealthful. It produces

duces pepper, sugar, tobacco, rice, coffee, cocoa-nuts, plantains, and other tropical fruits. The Dutch are absolute masters of the greatest part of the island, particularly of the north-coast, though there are still some princes beyond the mountains on the south-coast, who maintain their independency. Batavia, in this island, is the capital of all the Dutch dominions in India, an exceeding fine town and port, well fortified, and defended by a castle and strong garrison: they have about twenty thousand forces in the island, either Dutch, or formed out of the several nations they have enslaved; and they have a fleet of between twenty and thirty men of war, with which they give law to every power on the coast of Asia and Africa, and to all the European powers that visit the Indian Ocean. It was but a little before the Revolution they expelled us our settlement at Bantam; but no nation has been dealt more cruelly with than the Chinese, who fled thither, rather than submit to the Tartar princes. There are one hundred thousand of them in the island, and about thirty thousand resided in the city of Batavia, where they had a particular quarter assigned them, and grew very rich by traffic. In the year 1740, the Dutch, pretending that the Chinese were in a plot against them, sent a body of troops into their quarter, and demanded their arms, which the Chinese readily delivered up; and the next day the governor sent another body of troops, with orders to murder and massacre every one of the Chinese, men, women, and children. Some relate, there were twenty thousand, others thirty thousand, that were put to death without any manner of trial; and yet the barbarous governor, who was the instrument of this cruel proceeding, had the assurance to embark for Europe, imagining he had amassed wealth enough to secure him against any prosecution in Holland; but the Dutch, finding themselves detested and abhorred by all mankind for this piece of tyranny, endeavoured to throw the odium of it on the governor, though he had the hands of all the council of Batavia, except one, to the order for the massacre. The states, therefore, dispatched a packet to the Cape of Good Hope, containing orders to apprehend the governor of Batavia, if he came to Europe that way, and to send him back to Batavia to be tried. He was accordingly apprehended at the Cape, but has never been heard of since. It is supposed, he was thrown over-board in his passage to Batavia, that there might be no further enquiries into the matter; and, it is said, all the wealth this merciful gentleman

tleman had amassed, and sent over before him in four ships, was cast away in the passage. The rest of the Sunda Islands are inconsiderable.

*Andaman
and Nico-
bar Isles.*

The Andaman and Nicobar Islands lie near the coast of Malacca, at the entrance of the bay of Bengal; they afford no merchandize but provisions, besides the tropical fruits, with which they supply the shipping that touch there.

*Maldivia
Isles.*

The Maldivia Islands consist of numberless little rocks, just above the water, lying between the equator and Cape Comorin, in the Hither India, and afford little more than rice, the tropical fruits, and fish; besides the little shells called cowries, which serve instead of small cash in most of the Indian nations.

*Island of
Ceylon.*

Ceylon is the last island of note in this part of the world. It is situated about 45 leagues from Cape Comorin, between the 6th and 10th degree of north latitude, and between the 79th and 82d degree of east longitude; and is about sixty leagues long, and above two hundred in circumference. Some imagine it to be the Taprobana of the ancients. It was first discovered by the Portuguese in 1506, and in 1602, began to be visited by the Dutch, who, encouraged and assisted by the natives, successively seized all the forts possessed by the Portuguese, whom they drove quite out of the island in 1657, by the reduction of Colombo, the handsomest and strongest town in Ceylon. In 1672, the French made an attempt to settle on this island; and the king of Candi, desirous of employing them against the Dutch, as he had formerly employed the Dutch against the Portuguese, had ceded to them by treaty the port of Gottiar, situated at the bottom of the bay of Trinquemaille, on the east side of the island; but the enterprize failing, the Dutch company remained sole masters of the coasts, and of the cinnamon trade; but were still on bad terms with the natives, who continually reproached them with their knavery, and would place no confidence in them. The seeds of discontent once sown seldom fail to shoot out. The Dutch on their side were continually bent upon oppressing and enslaving the natives; their inherent temper, wherever they have any power, can never shew them in the character of lenity: at last their repeated cruelties caused the natives to rise and destroy most of them, with the plantations of cinnamon and other spices. This happened in the year 1761. Whether they have since repossessed themselves intirely of their settlements in this island is un-

uncertain; they have at least endeavoured to do so, and it is likely they have got some footing again, having had for a considerable time none to oppose them but the natives.

Ceylon produces many things besides cinnamon, with which the inhabitants might carry on a great trade; such as long pepper, cotton, ivory, several drugs and roots useful in dying and in medicine, cardamom, mirabolans, silk, tobacco, ebony, excellent timber for building, lead ore, betel, wild honey, musk, wax, crystal, saltpetre, sulphur, sugar, corcoma, rice, of which the Dutch carry a great quantity to the coast of Coromandel; iron, steel, copper, gold and silver, all sorts of precious stones, except diamonds; and lastly, elephants. Indeed, the mines of gold and silver are prohibited to be worked; the precious stones are all reserved for the king; and sulphur and saltpetre are not allowed to be exported, but are refined on the island: whence the commerce of the Dutch may be said to be confined almost to cinnamon; and even for this they trade only with the natives adjoining to their settlements, who are kept under subjection by the awe of their garrisons. The cinnamon tree does not grow on all parts of the island: some parts produce very few trees, and others none at all. What is called the cinnamon-field, which belongs wholly to the Dutch, lies between Negambo and Gallietes, comprehending the west and south coasts of the island. The best cinnamon grows in the neighbourhood of Colombo and Negambo; that at Point de Galles is pretty good; the rest is middling. Cinnamon is divided into three sorts, finest, middling, and coarse. The best is taken from young trees; and as the trees advance in years, the bark degenerates. The trees multiply very fast, and almost without culture: but the Dutch, to keep up the value of cinnamon, obstruct their propagation. The Dutch also export a considerable number of elephants from Ceylon to India, where they are much valued, the smallest selling for upwards of forty guineas, and the largest for about seventy pounds sterling. Their teeth are larger, whiter, and of a finer grain than any that come from India or Africa.

Before the Europeans appeared in India, the Chinese were masters of the trade of Ceylon; afterwards the Persians, Arabians, and Ethiopians came in for a share of it; at last the Dutch excluded all other nations.

Asia has much the advantage over the other three parts of the world in respect of fertility, opulence, and populousness, except where the tyranny of the government has laid

Some reflections on Asia in general.

laid an invincible obstacle on them. With regard to its soil, it is plain that nature has been extremely munificent to it, and that it abundantly repays all the cost and labour expended on it, both in the quantity and quality of its produce ; and that the grain and fruit it yields, are by far more delicious than those of Europe, and in much greater plenty and variety. This is visible by what has been said of Persia, China, Japan, and some other parts, where the lands are hereditary, and every owner encouraged to make the best of every spot ; whereas, in those vast tracts of Asia which groan under the Turkish yoke, though naturally as rich and fruitful, at least they were so in better times, and under easier governments, scarce one tenth part is turned to the advantage it formerly was, and might still be, with proper encouragement. This is a plain indication, that it is not the pretended natural indolence of the inhabitants, but the precarious property of the lands, that makes so many rich and fruitful countries lie uncultivated, so many once opulent cities and provinces either intirely laid waste, or so poorly inhabited in the latter ; whilst, in the former, where property is secured to the industrious owner, every country is well tilled, and full of inhabitants ; and among these, a much greater number of ingenious men than of rude and idle, who take pleasure in exerting their application to trades, manufactures, and all sorts of commerce, all which must naturally rise and fall, according to the good or bad principles that constitute the policy of the government.

Now, considering the state of arts, religious rites, and civil institutions, as spread over the face of our globe, it will appear from the lights we have concerning these matters, that Asia has originally contributed to the peopling of the other parts, and that consequently a good argument may be deduced from hence in favour of the truth of the Mosaic history. According to the scriptures, the whole race of mankind issued from thence at two periods, first, on the expulsion of Adam from Paradise, a place situated near the Tigris and Euphrates ; and secondly, when the earth was re peopled upon the descent of Noah from the ark at Mount Ararat, a considerable eminence likewise in Asia. Moses himself has informed us concerning the first inhabitation of many of the eastern countries, and of the names and extraction of the first planters of them ; but what is most remarkable in the case, the most ancient histories and accounts we have, those of Moses excepted, are concerning such countries and kingdoms as lie in the eastern

eastern parts of the world, such as Egypt, China, Babylon, &c. clearly shewing, according to the Mosaic account of things, that these places were the first inhabited, and the first cultivated. Hence, it would be no difficult matter to evince the progress of arts and sciences, of religious usages, and civil customs; and even to trace the introduction of many trees, plants, and animals from the same quarter into the more western parts.

The rite of sacrifice prevailed in the eastern Asia, and from thence was brought into the western, and into Egypt, Greece, and Rome. The law of matrimony, instituted at first in the East, spread itself afterwards all over the West; and if it was the custom in Persia and Egypt, and in some parts of Greece, for a brother to marry a sister, it is very natural to suppose, that even this practice might be taken up from what necessarily passed under the first race of men. The rite of circumcision descended from Abraham into Egypt and Arabia. Polytheism or idolatry was a very ancient corruption of the eastern Asiatics, being at least as old as Serug; and we find it spread over Asia Minor, Egypt, and Greece, though in different modes. As to Greece, it seems first to have come into Crete, where Jupiter, whose age is sufficiently ascertained, both lived and reigned. The institution of the sabbath, or the rest of one day in seven, is as old as the creation, and accompanied Noah into the ark; and the Greeks, and other ancients, though more western nations, had it amongst them. Thus again, we have very early accounts in scripture of the practice of hunting, which yet in appearance did not arrive in Greece till the time of Diana, a daughter of Jupiter. The Asiatics had corn of every kind; and the time is in a manner known when it was first brought into Greece, being introduced by Ceres, who taught Triptolemus the method of its cultivation. The Greeks before then lived upon fruits, acorns, plants, and roots. The Asiatics also had the vine, which Bacchus meeting with in his excursions eastward, he brought into Europe, and for his service in that respect, had a place assigned him amongst the Gods, as the case had been before with Diana and Ceres. The olive, we must suppose, was unknown in Europe till the building of Athens, as likewise was the horse; when, on occasion of the fabulous contest between Minerva and Neptune about the patronage of that city, she produced the olive, and he the horse; whereas both had been long known before in the eastern parts of the world. The art of ship-building was begun

by Noah in the fabrication of the ark, and was revived from thence in the maritime parts of Phœnicia, from whence it was brought, perhaps by Tiphys, into Greece, and thence travelled westward, if it had not done so before by means of the Phœnicians. Music was not known in Greece till the time of Apollo, Mercury, and Pan, and yet was in Asia an antediluvian science. The same may be said of the use of metals, which seem not to have been manufactured in Greece till the age of Vulcan, son of Jupiter. Alphabetical letters, it is well known, were brought into Greece by Cadmus the Phœnician. The cock, that most useful creature, and consequently the hen, came originally into Greece from Persia, as appears from Aristophanes, and other authors. The pheasant takes its name from the river Phasis in Asia, which plainly shews the country from whence the Greeks and Romans received this fowl. The turkey, an eastern bird, as the name itself shews, did not get into England till the reign of king Henry VIII. The French call this fowl *Coq d' Inde*, or *the Indian cock*, which shews, that it was not known amongst them till after the discovery of the Indies. Cherries, as Pliny tells us, were brought from Pontus into Italy by Lucullus. Pliny also has traced the several stages of the plane-tree from Syria through the Grecian islands, till it arrived in Italy, and passed thence to the western parts of Gaul. All these particulars tend to shew, that the progress of things, has, in fact, been from east to west, and that the emigrants for peopling the western parts had of course brought their arts and sciences, inventions, fruits, animals, vegetables, religion, and languages, in part along with them; and what they had not at first brought, they afterwards endeavoured, if possible, to supply themselves with.

C H A P. II.

Of A F R I C A.

S E C T. I.

Of Africa in general.

AFRICA, one of the four principal parts of the world, lies south of Europe, and west of Asia, and is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, which parts it from the former; and on the east by the Red Sea, which separates it from the latter, to which it only joins by that small isthmus, or neck of land, which cuts off the communication between these two seas, and is commonly known by the name of Suez. On the south and west, it is surrounded with the main ocean, so that it may be properly stiled a vast over-grown peninsula, joined only to the continent of Asia by the isthmus abovementioned. It extends a prodigious way, not only on each side of the equator, but of the tropics likewise, the southern verge of it reaching quite to the 35th degree of south, and the northern almost to the 37th of north latitude; whereby its utmost extent, from north to south, is almost seventy-two degrees, or about four thousand three hundred and twenty miles. From east to west it reaches still farther, viz. from seventeen west to sixty east, or seventy-seven degrees of longitude, that is, four thousand six hundred and twenty miles. It is of a triangular or pyramidal figure, the base being the northern part of it, which runs along the shores of the Mediterranean, and the point or top of the pyramid the Cape of Good Hope.

Situation and boundaries of Africa.

Extent.

Figure.

Its situation for commerce is certainly beyond any of the other quarters of the world. It stands, as it were, in the center between the other three, and has thereby a much nearer communication with Europe, Asia, and America, than any other quarter has with the rest; for it lies opposite Europe in the Mediterranean, almost one thousand miles in a line east and west, from beyond Tripoli to Cape Spartel at the straits mouth; the distance seldom one hundred miles, no where one hundred leagues, and often not twenty leagues. It is opposite Asia all the length of the Red Sea, north and south; the distance sometimes not being above five leagues, seldom

Situation for commerce.

fifty ; and it fronts all the southern coast of Asia, viz. the coasts of Cilicia, and that of India, though at a greater distance, yet much nearer than any other country. It is also wonderfully accommodated for commerce, by the interposition of islands from Madagascar to Malabar ; and more particularly by means of the alternate trade winds, which render the navigation safe, easy, and constant. Lastly, it lies opposite to America, about the distance of five hundred to seven hundred leagues, including the islands, by a coast of above two thousand miles ; whereas America no where joins Europe or Asia, except where it may be a terra incognita, the former under a distance of one thousand leagues, the latter under that of two thousand five hundred.

*Other advantages
by rivers ;
fertility of
the soil, &c.*

It is furnished with the greatest and most convenient navigable rivers, and, perhaps, with as many of them, as any other of the chief parts of the world ; such are the Nile and Nubia on the north shore, running into the Mediterranean Sea ; the Niger, or Rio Grand, running into the Atlantic Ocean, on the west side of Africa ; the Congo, the Zairi, and the Loango, three rivers of prodigious extent, south of the line, which empty themselves into the Ethiopic Ocean on the same west side, but beyond the Gold Coast : also the Natal, the Prio St. Esprit, the Melinda, and the Mozambo, all rivers of a very great length and breadth, which empty themselves into the Indian Ocean on the east side of Africa. Besides these, there are innumerable others, which, though not equal to them, are yet very noble streams, fitted for navigation and commerce ; and was this country blessed with a people qualified for trade and business, they might become the medium of an endless commercial correspondence. It is, indeed, populous to a greater degree than commonly thought ; the soil fruitful, and the air salubrious : and, if once a turn for industry and the arts was introduced among the natives, a greater quantity of the European produce and manufactures might be exported thither, than to any other country in the whole world. And as, in general, they stand in great need of European commodities, so they have the most valuable returns to make for them. This is not the state of trade between Europe and Asia : Europe calls for a vast variety of goods from Asia, and Asia calls for more money than any thing else from Europe : yet there seems to be a kind of peculiarity in this trade, to the infinite advantage, particularly of the Indian and Chinese commerce, and the great disadvantage of most, if not all, the nations of

*State of
the African
and Asiatic
trade.*

of Europe: for the trade of Asia drains the whole western world of their ready money, in return for their mere products and manufactures. However, in the main, this is not such a disadvantage to Europe as some are inclined to think; and it need only be observed, that some great politicians have looked upon gold and silver in no other light than as commodities, and ought to be as freely exported and imported, except in our own coin, as any other whatsoever: and, if Europe at present contained all the gold and silver that Africa and America have ever produced, it is to be questioned, whether she might be said to be ever the richer, by reason that gold and silver would then be as was said of Solomon's time, as plenty as the stones in the streets, and therefore of little or no value. So that a commerce which takes off from the Europeans some proportion of its silver, may be as necessary as any other, to keep its value equally with that of gold, the latter always finding its value according to the quantity of the former.

But to return to the valuable returns the Africans have to make, which the Europeans experience, from the share of traffic they carry on with them at present: to what a degree they abound in gold, we have not only the testimony of the Portuguese, the Dutch, and the French, as well as the English, who have settlements on the coast of Africa, but the vouchers of the most authentic historians. There is no country in the world, says Leo Africanus, richer in gold and silver than some kingdoms in Africa, as those of Mandingo, Ethiopia, Congo, Angola, Butua, Quiticui, Monomotapa, Cafati, and Mehenemugi. By means of settlements of strength on the continent of Africa, the Europeans might, by the exchange of their commodities, draw into their hands all the gold of those countries. And here is a prodigious number of elephants, which would not only facilitate the inland intercourses of commerce, but also afford a very beneficial branch of traffic, in the teeth of these valuable animals. In the same historian are numberless passages relating to those rich mines, and shewing how easy it would be for the Europeans to carry on a very extensive traffic with that part of the globe. This account of the great treasures of Africa is confirmed likewise by the Nubian geographer, who says, that the king of Guinea, the greatest city in all the countries of Negroland, has a mass of gold of thirty pounds weight, as it was naturally produced in the mines; which is completely pure, tough, and malleable, without having been smelted by the ordinary arts of refining that metal from

*Valuable
products of
Africa.*

from its native ore. Father Labat has descended to a very minute specification of a great variety of rich mines, which, he says, are very shamefully worked by the Negroes, by reason of their being totally ignorant of the nature of mining; nor have they ever yet come to the main vein of any of their mines. Copper is the next valuable ore found in this part of the world. The quantity of it is not fully searched into, though there is good reason to believe it is so exceeding great, that it is commonly said amongst them, that the mountains which we call Atlas are all copper. On the northern coasts they have such plenty of corn, that their fields, though but very meanly cultivated, for want of a knowledge in agriculture, yield them a hundred-fold increase. Gums, ivory, wax, civet, ostrich-feathers, are in such quantities, that any expence of them can scarce ever be missed: and, in these warm climates, the country, besides what nature has of herself disseminated, is, and must be capable of improvement, in all the nicest and most estimable productions, which the well-cultivated world supplies us with, from other places in the same latitude. It cannot be doubted but the fruitful rich lands every where to be found upon the coasts, and within the country, upon the banks of the rivers near the Gold Coast and the Slave Coast, would produce all the richest articles of the East and West India commerce. The spices of Banda, Ternate, and Amboyna, might be produced on the rich and fruitful shores of Melinda, on the east side, or of the Slave Coast on the west side of Africa; and that as easily, and to as great advantage, as where they are now produced; the latitude being the same, and the soil not unlike. The cinnamon of Ceylon, the tea of China and Japan, and the coffee of Mocha, would all three be produced on the same coast, from the Rio de St. Esprit, and southward to the river Natale; a temperate, fertile, healthy, and manageable soil. It has been affirmed, that the sugars of Barbadoes and Jamaica, as also the ginger, cotton, rice, pepper, or pimento, with the cocoa, the indigo, and every other plant which comes from these islands, would be as easily produced in Africa, and the crops equally profitable and plentiful, if supported by the same industry as in America: and we are assured, that ginger, cotton, and indigo, have been attempted by the English factories on the Gold Coast of Africa, where they have thriven to admiration. Upon the foundation of these facts, nothing seems wanting to render Africa equal by nature, if not in many respects superior to any of the other parts

parts of the world: for though the middle of it, lying between the tropics in the torrid zone, and under the line, is exceeding hot, yet even in the hottest part it is habitable and inhabited; and the people abound in plenty, have cattle, corn, cooling fruits, shades, and rivers, and live very agreeably and healthy: as, for instance, in the island of St. Thomas, under the very line; also on the Gold Coast, and in the kingdom of Benin and Angola on the west shore; and in Ethiopia, Melinda, the coast of Zanguebar, and several of the more intemperate places on the eastern shore. But making allowance for some of the inland countries remote from the sea, which, we are told, are without water, and therefore desert; yet are they not equal to the uninhabited wastes of Europe, Asia, and America. Notwithstanding this, Africa, in the respect of feeling no cold, has an advantage over the other parts of the world: the most northerly latitude is about 37 deg. and the most southerly about 35 deg. so that the far larger part enjoys the finest and most temperate climate. It is, however, melancholy to observe, that a country which has near ten thousand miles of sea-coast, and noble, large, deep rivers, should yet have no navigation; streams penetrating into the very center of the country, but of no benefit to it; innumerable people, without knowledge of each other, correspondence, or commerce. At the entrance of these rivers into the sea are the most excellent harbours, prodigious in number, deep, safe, and calm, covered from the wind, and capable of being made secure by fortifications; but no shipping, no trade, no merchants, even where there is plenty of merchandizes. In short, Africa, though a full quarter of the globe, stored with an inexhaustible treasure, and capable, under proper improvements, of producing so many things delightful, as well as convenient within itself, seems utterly neglected by those who are civilized themselves, and its own inhabitants are quite unsolicitous of reaping the benefits which nature has provided for them. What it affords, in its present rude unimproved state, is solely given up to the gain of others, as if not only the people were to be sold for slaves to their fellow creatures, but the whole country was captive, and produced its treasures merely for the use and benefit of the rest of the world, and not for their own.

Whether, instead of making slaves of these people, it would not rather become such nations that assume to themselves the name and character of Christians, to give them a relish for the blessings of life, by extending traffic into their

*Reflections
on the African
slave-trade.*

their country in the largest degree it will admit of, and introducing among them the more civilized arts and customs, may be submitted to consideration. The Dutch, by recommending their dress, and introducing their customs in the Spice Islands, have wonderfully humanized the inhabitants, who were as strange in their manners as the Negroes. But it is to be feared, that while the slave-trade with these people continues to be the great object of the Europeans, it will ever spirit up wars and hostilities among the Negro princes and chiefs, for the sake of making captives of each other for sale. This, therefore, will ever obstruct the civilizing these people, and extending their trade into the bowels of Africa, which, by the contrary means, might be easily practicable. The obtaining a competent number of servants to work, as the Negroes at present do, in the colonies belonging to the several European potentates, who have settlements in America, does not seem at all impracticable. Europe in general affords numberless poor and distressed objects for that purpose; and if these were not over-worked, as the Negroes are in some of the American colonies, the Europeans would make as good servants for the planters as the blacks do; and, if also all the Europeans were upon a level in regard to the price of labour in their colonies, they would all, very probably, find their account in laying absolutely aside the slave-trade, and cultivating a fair, friendly, humane, and civilized commerce with the Africans.

*Ancient
State of
Africa.*

Africa once contained several kingdoms and states, eminent for the liberal arts, for wealth and power, and the most extensive commerce. Then almost all the northern parts of Africa were full of people, from the Red Sea to the Atlantic Ocean; the kingdoms of Egypt and Ethiopia were much celebrated, and the rich and powerful state of Carthage extended her commerce to every part of the then known world: even the British shores were visited by her fleets, till Juba, king of Mauritania, and tributary to Carthage, unhappily called in the Romans, who, by the assistance of the Mauritanians, subdued Carthage, and made all the kingdoms and states in Africa subject to them. After this, the natives, constantly plundered, and consequently impoverished, by the governors sent from Rome, neglected their trade, and cultivated no more of their lands than might serve for their subsistence. Upon the decline of the Roman empire, in the fifth century, the north of Africa was over-run by the Vandals, a barbarous northern people, who contributed still more to the destruction

struction of arts and sciences; and, to add to this country's calamity, the Saracens made a sudden conquest of all the coasts of Egypt and Barbary in the seventh century: these were afterwards succeeded by the Turks; and both being of the Mohammedan religion, whose professors carry desolation with them wherever they come, the ruin of that once flourishing part of the world was thereby completed.

Three different people inhabit this continent, namely, Pagans, Mohammedans, and Christians. The first are the most numerous, possessing the greatest part of the country from the tropic of Cancer to the Cape of Good Hope, and these are generally black. The Mohammedans, who are of a tawny complexion, possess almost all the northern shores of Africa. The people of Abyssinia, or the Upper Ethiopia, are denominated Christians, but retain abundance of Pagan and Jewish rites: there are some other Christians upon the sea-coasts, on almost every side of Africa; but the number is small, compared with that of the Pagans or Mohammedans. There are also some Jews on the north of Africa, who manage all the little trade that part of the country is yet possessed of. But it is remarkable, that though the Carthaginians, who inhabited this very country of Barbary, had greater fleets, and a more extended commerce, than any other nation, or than all the people upon the face of the earth, when that state flourished, the present inhabitants have scarce any merchant ships belonging to them, and no other ships of force than what Salee, Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, fit out for piracy, and these but few and small, their whole strength not being able to resist a squadron of European men of war.

There are scarce any two nations, or indeed any two of the learned, that agree in the modern division of Africa; and for this very reason, that scarce any traveller has penetrated into the heart of the country, and consequently we must be content to acknowledge our ignorance of the bounds, and even the names of several of the midland nations. These may still be reckoned among the unknown and undiscovered parts of the world; but, according to the best accounts and conjectures, Africa may be commodiously divided into ten parts, consisting of, 1. Egypt. 2. Ethiopia Superior. 3. Zanguebar, with Adel; all which lie on the east of Africa. 4. Monœmugi, Monomotapa, and Caffraria, called by some the Lower Ethiopia, which lie on the south. 5. Guinea, on the south-west. 6. Nigritia,

Disagreement about the division of Africa.

Commodiously divided into ten parts.

6. Nigritia, or Negroland, in the middle of Africa, extending almost quite through the country from east to west, on both sides of the great river Niger. 7. Zaara, or the desert to the northward of Nigritia. 8. Biledulgerid, the ancient Numidia, to the northward of Zaara. 9. The empire of Fez and Morocco, containing the north-west part of Africa. 10. The coast of Barbary, on the north, containing the countries of Algiers, Tunis, Tripoli, and Barca.

S E C T. II.

Of Egypt.

*Names of
Egypt.*

EGYPT is supposed to derive its name from Egyptus, the brother of Danaus, once sovereign of this country. The Hebrews and Arabs called it Misraim, from the son of Cham, and grandson of Noah, of that name; and it has also been known by the name of Coptus, the capital city of Upper Egypt, from whence the natives are called Cophtis, as the Christians of Egypt are at this day; and, though not the most numerous, are looked upon to be the true descendents of the ancient Egyptians. The Turks call this country El Kebab, which signifies *one that is overflowed*.

Boundaries, situation, and extent.

Egypt is situated on the north-east part of Africa, being bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north; by the Red Sea, and the isthmus of Suez, which divide it from Asia, towards the east; by the empire of Abyssinia and Nubia towards the south; and by the desert of Barca towards the west. It extends from the 21st deg. of north latitude to the 31st, and a few minutes beyond; and consequently must be about six hundred miles in length from south to north; but the breadth in many places does not seem to be near two hundred.

Air, waters, and fertility.

The air of this country is not healthful, the situation being very low; the mud, which covers the best part of it after the overflowing of the Nile, sending up a noisome vapour. The sandy deserts also, which encompass Egypt on three sides, render it excessive hot. Nor are there more than two springs in the whole country to refresh the parched inhabitants; so that they seem to be under a necessity of building their towns on the banks of the Nile. Accordingly, most of them stand near the river upon rising ground, so made by art or nature; and when the river overflows, they appear like so many islands, which have

have a communication with each other only by boats. It seldom rains in summer; but in the winter, modern travellers assure us, it rains plentifully sometimes, especially in the Lower Egypt. However, the fertility of the country, especially in corn, is not owing to these rains, but to the course and overflowings of the river Nile. As to its swelling, geographers inform us, that it corresponds exactly with the rainy seasons between the tropics. They commence in the mountains about the beginning of May, and the water of the Nile begins to swell about the middle of it; so that there are fifteen days allowed by nature for the course of the water from the latitude of Ethiopia to that of Egypt, which is esteemed a pretty exact allowance; the distance being from 13 or 15 deg. to the latitude of 28 and 30 deg. which may very well correspond with the time. As to the continuance of the inundation, this is said to be just the same, keeping time with the rains; for as it is in several parts of Africa, so it is in Ethiopia, the rains abate at the beginning of September, and cease by the beginning of October. Thus the inundation answers exactly fifteen days, the same space as before. After the rains begin to abate in Ethiopia, the inundation of the river begins to abate in Egypt; and ten days after the rains cease in Ethiopia, the Nile is quite reduced to its ancient channel in Egypt. This being the case, there can be no room any longer to doubt of the rains in Ethiopia being the cause of this inundation. In regard to the height to which the waters rise, some authors give an account of the swell being about forty feet in height perpendicularly; which, though it be extraordinary to imagine, and must, in our imagination, as before observed, place all the towns on a hilly situation, or suppose them to be laid under water; yet, since so many affirm it for truth, we must assent to what they say. The effects of this inundation are fructifying the earth, not only moistening it instead of rain, but enriching the land with the fattening slimy substance, which it receives from the richness of the soil in Ethiopia, from whence it comes. This is said to be peculiar to the river Nile, as the country of Ethiopia is rich and fruitful beyond all that part of Africa. It is true, that the Niger, the Congo, and several other rivers on the coast of Africa, which overflow the country, render it fruitful, and enrich the soil as well as the Nile does, but none in so extraordinary a manner.

Inundations of the Nile.

Egypt is commonly divided into Lower, Middle, and Upper.

Division of Egypt.

*Lower
Egypt.*

Lower Egypt, or Egypt properly so called, is so styled on account of its situation, according to the course of the Nile, it being the last of the three through which that river runs, and from which it discharges itself into the sea. It is bounded on the south by Middle Egypt, on the north by the sea, on the west by the desert of Barca, and on the east by the isthmus of Suez. This country is very fertile, and so well improved, that it abounds with pasture grounds, corn, wine, rice, dates, fenna, cassia, baulm, medicinal drugs, plants, and some other valuable articles. Its principal towns are,

*Principal
towns.*

Busiris, an ancient city, but now dwindled into a village called Aboasar. Alexandria, by the Turks called Scanderic, is situate at the mouth of the Canopean branch of the Nile, where it forms a noble spacious haven, in form of a crescent; and which, though not very safe, is much frequented. This city boasts of its antiquity, having been built by Alexander the Great after the taking of Tyre, that he might preserve the trade between India and Europe, which he found, to his great dissatisfaction, was ruined by the destruction of Tyre; so great a value was set upon the East India trade even in those days. This trade from India was carried on for many ages with infinite advantage by the Tyrians; and Alexander, who was ill advised in extirpating the Phœnician merchants, to make the world amends erected this city, making it a free port, and giving it his own name. But though he exerted his utmost sagacity and authority to bring the Indian merchants to settle there, and make it the staple of their manufactures, a great part of their commerce took another turn, and passing from India by the river Oxus, and the city of Samarcand into the Caspian Sea, and thence by land to Trapezond, from whence it crossed the Euxine Sea, and passing other neighbouring seas, at length centered in the city of Corinth, which, by that means, became a great and opulent city. Alexander, however, so far prevailed, that a great part of the trade from India came this way, particularly such of it as was carried on at the coast of Malabar, and in the Persian Gulf, which coming up the Red Sea, landed goods at Elam, now Suez, and they were thence carried over land to the Nile, and then again by water to Alexandria. That this city, in the most flourishing state of its commerce, was a large, opulent, strong, and magnificent city, is certain; and that, since the decay of its trade, it is now little more than the skeleton of what it has been, is not less true. Its conflagration by

by the Saracens, indeed, effected its present ruinous state, in comparison to what it was in its splendor. It has still some trade, and is populous, but not considerable. Rossetto also, and Damietta, and even Grand Cairo, have lost the fund of their wealth and glory from the time that the Portuguese, unhappily for them, found the way to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope.

The ground Alexandria stands upon is so extremely low, that it can scarce be discerned by mariners till they are just upon it, which was probably the occasion of erecting that famous pharos, or high watch tower, so frequently mentioned in history for a sea-mark. In the room of it there is now built a castle, which serves for the same purpose. The old town of Alexandria stretched from east to west, and was about seven miles in circumference, but is now a heap of ruins, scarce any thing being left standing, except one long street, indifferently built, with some houses facing the harbour, and a part of the walls, which are very magnificent, having great square towers at about two hundred paces distant from each other, and a little tower between them. It was built upon arches, supported by marble pillars, and under every house were cisterns, to receive the waters of the Nile, which were conveyed thither by aqueducts. Among the ruins are several fine pillars of porphyry and granate, with hieroglyphics upon them. But the finest piece of antiquity still left standing, is, Pompey's pillar, about two hundred paces from the town, erected by Julius Cæsar, in memory of his victory over that great man, who fled thither from the battle of Pharsalia, and was murdered on the Egyptian coast.

The body of the pillar is one entire piece of granite *Pompey's pillar.* marble, or some composition as durable and beautiful as marble. The height of it is seventy feet, and the circumference twenty-five, with a noble capital and base; on which are several hieroglyphics. It is amazing how such a prodigious stone could be brought here, and as difficult to conceive with what kind of engine it was raised. Some imagine it was made or cast upon the place, and this has occasioned it to be suggested, that the ancients had an art of casting stone, and of imitating, or rather excelling, the most beautiful pieces of natural marble, particularly the Egyptians; but this is much doubted by the learned.

The next considerable place to Alexandria is Rosetto, a healthy, pleasant, and populous city, situate on a branch of the Nile. The chief business of the inhabitants is

carrying the European merchandizes, which are brought hither from Alexandria, to Cairo in boats. For this purpose, the Europeans have their vice-consuls and factors to expedite business, and all letters and bills brought from Alexandria. Letters of consequence are conveyed by land across the desert by foot-messengers directly to Cairo.

About a hundred miles eastward of Rosetto, stands the city of Damietta, or Pelusium, on one of the eastern branches of the Nile, about ten miles from the mouth of it. It is reckoned one of the keys of Egypt; is large, though ill built, and has about twenty-five thousand inhabitants, without reckoning a good, large, and populous town, on the other side of the river, chiefly inhabited by sailors and fishermen, and a much greater number of strangers from all parts, on account of traffic, all which have contributed not a little to make it opulent and considerable. The towns and villages between this city and Cairo lie pretty thick, and a good number of the inhabitants are employed, some in hatching great multitudes of eggs in ovens, and rearing the chickens; and others in making great quantities of sal ammoniac. This salt is procured from the foot which arises from the burnt dung of animals that feed only on vegetables; but the dung of these animals is only fit to burn for sal ammoniac during the four first months of the year, when they feed on fresh spring grass, which, in Egypt, is a kind of trefoil, or clover; for when they feed only on dry meat it will not do. The dung of oxen, buffaloes, sheep, goats, horses, and apes, at the proper time, is as fit as the dung of camels for this purpose: it is said that even human dung is equal to any other. The foot arising from the burnt dung is put into glass vessels, and these vessels into an oven or kiln, which is heated by degrees, and at last, urged with a very strong fire for three successive nights and days; the smoke first shews itself, and in a short time after, the salt appears adhering to the glasses, and, by degrees, covers the whole opening. The glasses are then broken, and the salt taken out in the same state and form in which it is sent to Europe.

*Middle
Egypt.*

Middle Egypt is situate between the Upper and Lower, having the former on the south, and the latter on the north, the Red Sea on the east, and the desert of Barca on the west. At present it is chiefly known by the names of Bakeirah and Benesfor. It is divided in two by the Nile, on the banks of which the soil is fruitful; but more sandy and barren the farther the land runs from it.

Cairo,

Cairo, the capital of Egypt, and by far the largest and most populous in the whole kingdom, is pleasantly situated on the Nile. It appears from the great number of squares,

Cairo.

caravanferas, bazars, and other such public buildings, to have been a place of extraordinary commerce, now decayed, since the trade to the East Indies by the way of the Cape of Good Hope; yet it still is famed for some manufactures, especially that of Turkey carpets, and a good trade by means of the caravans. The beglerbeg, or viceroy of the whole kingdom, resides here in the castle, which stands on the top of a hill in the south-quarter of the city, and commands a noble prospect of it and the environs. It is two or three miles in circumference, and appears like another city. The walls are high and thick, with towers after the ancient way of fortification; and it is said, that there are several subterraneous vaults or passages, leading from them to distant towns. But what travellers seem to be the most taken with here, is a well two hundred and eighty feet deep, which has obtained the name of Joseph's well. This and another are the only springs in the kingdom of Egypt. There are also shewn, in the ruins of a noble building, which is pretended to be Joseph's hall, where he sat in judgment, thirty fine pillars of Theban marble, with part of the roof overlaid with gold and azure.

*Castle of
Cairo.*

Between three and four leagues to the westward of Cairo, stand those three vast pyramids so justly the admiration of all that view them. That which has suffered least by the injuries of time, is situated on the top of a rock, in the sandy desert of Lybia, about a quarter of a mile to the west of the plains of Egypt, above which the rock rises upwards of a hundred feet, with an easy ascent. Each side of this pyramid, at the base, is six hundred and ninety-three feet, according to the English standard; its perpendicular height is four hundred and ninety-nine feet; but if taken as the pyramid ascends, inclining, then the height is equal to the breadth of the base, viz. six hundred and ninety-three feet. The whole area of the base contains four hundred and eighty thousand two hundred and forty-nine square feet, or eleven acres of ground, and one thousand and eighty-nine of forty-three thousand five hundred and sixty parts of an acre. This pyramid is ascended on the outside by steps; the breadth and depth of every step is one entire stone, and many of them thirty feet in length, and the number of steps from the bottom to the top is two hundred and seven. On the north side

*Pyramids
of Egypt.*

of this pyramid, going thirty-eight feet up an artificial bank of earth, there is a narrow, square passage, leading into the pyramid, about three feet and a half high, and three feet and a quarter broad: this passage is very steep, and runs downwards ninety-two feet and a half; the smoothness and evenness of the work, and the close knitting of the joints, shew it to have been the labour of some exquisite hand: the curious traveller having passed, with lighted torches, through this streight, which, towards the end grows so narrow, that he is forced to creep upon his belly, comes into a place somewhat larger; but nothing worth description is observed in it, except the monstrous bats, said to exceed a foot in length, by which it is inhabited. The length of this obscure broken place contains eighty-nine feet, the breadth unequal, supposed to have been dug for the discovery of some hidden treasure. On the left, adjoining the narrow entrance first passed, a stone eight or nine feet high must be climbed up, to enter upon the lower end of the first gallery, of which the pavement rises gently, and consists of smooth polished marble, of a white and alabaster colour, being about five feet in height, and as many in breadth. This gallery contains in length one hundred and ten feet; and at the end begins a second gallery, a very stately piece of work, not inferior in materials or workmanship to the most magnificent buildings. The length of this gallery is one hundred and twenty-four feet, and if we consider the narrow entrance at the mouth of the pyramid, by which the first descent is made, and the length of the first and second galleries, by which the ascent is again in one continued line, and leading to the middle of the pyramid, we may easily apprehend the reason of that strange echo of four or five voices, mentioned by Plutarch, or rather of a long continued sound, which is heard on discharging a musket at the entrance; for the sound being shut in, and conveyed in those close smooth passages, as in so many pipes or tubes, finding no issue out, makes a repercussion upon itself, and causes a confused noise and circulation of the air, which by degrees vanishes as the motion ceases. But to return: this second gallery is paved and lined with white polished marble, cut in vast squares or tables: the roof is of the same materials; and the junctures of the stones are so close and exact, that they are scarce preceptible. The height of this gallery is twenty-six feet, and the breadth six; and there are benches on each side of polished stone. Passing from the second gallery, through a small square hole

hole, into some closets or little chambers, lined with Thebaic marble, there is an entrance to a very noble hall, or chamber, which stands in the centre of the pyramid, equidistant from all the sides, and almost in the midst between the base and the top. The floor, sides, and roof of this room, are all of exquisite tables of Thebaic marble. From the top to the bottom of it there are but six ranges of stone; and the stones which cover it are of a stupendous length, like so many huge beams lying flat, and traversing the room, and nine of these form the roof. The length of this hall is somewhat more than thirty-four English feet, the breadth seventeen, and the height nineteen and a half. There stands a tomb in it, supposed to be that of Cheops, or Chemnis, king of Egypt, the founder of the pyramid. This tomb is one entire piece of marble made hollow; it is uncovered at the top, and sounds like a bell on being struck. There are no signs of any corpse having been laid in it. The hollow part is little more than six feet in length, and two in depth and breadth; from which dimensions it has been observed, as well as from the embalmed bodies seen in Egypt, that there is no decay in nature, but than the men of this age are of the same stature they were three thousand years ago.

In passing from the first pyramid to the second, are seen the ruins of a pile of building, all of square polished stone, supposed to be the habitation of the priests. The stones of this pyramid are white, and not near so large as those of the former, nor do the sides rise by degrees, or steps, like the other, but are all plain and smooth. The whole fabric, except on the south, is very entire and free from any deformed ruptures or breaches; and the dimensions, both as to the height and breadth, are equal to the first; but no entrance has been yet discovered into it, nor is it known whether there be any apartments within, though it is highly probable there are, this being designed for the sepulchre of Cephren, the brother of Cheops, another Egyptian king. This pyramid has, on the north and west sides, two very stately buildings, thirty feet in depth, and fourteen hundred in length, hewn out of the solid rock: these, it is supposed, were designed for lodging the priests, but have no other entrance into them than such square openings hewn out of the rock, of the same bigness with those described in the first pyramid, and within are square chambers arched and made out of the rock.

Second pyramid.

Third pyramid.

The third pyramid stands a furlong distant from the second, upon a rising of the rock, which makes it seem equal to the former at a distance. It seems to be entirely built of a clear white stone, something better and brighter than that of the other two. Each side of the base is somewhat more than three hundred feet, and the height the same. There are several other pyramids dispersed about the Lybian desert, to the amount of twenty, but most of them much inferior in bulk to any of these three. One, which stands twenty miles south and by west of those above described, is of the same dimensions with the first, with steps or degrees on the outside, but more decayed. It has also an entrance on the north-side, but blocked up, so that there is no getting in to see the apartments.

Built probably by the Israelites.

These pyramids are supposed by many of the learned, to have been built by the Israelites, which is confirmed by Josephus, who says, that when time had extinguished the memory of the benefits of Joseph, and the kingdom was transferred to another family, they used the Israelites with great rigour, wasting them by several labours. It is very probable, the kings of Egypt employed them in these stupendous works, more on a political account than for any ostentation of power and grandeur. It seemed expedient to keep a mutinous people in action, who, upon the least respite from their labours, were ready to break out into rebellion; and, as it appears at the time of their leaving Egypt, there were no less than six hundred thousand of them, besides women and children, there cannot be a proper epoch assigned for erecting these structures than when they dwelt in this kingdom.

Occasion of erecting them.

The general opinion is, that these pyramids were erected for sepulchral monuments, and in confirmation of it, Ebn Abd Alhokim, the Arabian, relates, that Almamon, the caliph of Babylon, when he caused the largest pyramid to be opened, between eight and nine hundred years since, found in it towards the top, a chamber with a hollow stone, in which there was a statue like a man, and within it a man, on whom was a breast-plate of gold set with jewels; upon the breast-plate lay a sword of inestimable price, and at his head a carbuncle of the bigness of an egg, shining like the light, and upon him were written characters with a pen which no man understood. But there is this farther reason given, (which sprung from the theology of the Egyptians, who believed that as long as the body endured, so long the soul continued with it;) that

that they therefore kept their dead embalmed, that their souls might continue with them a great while, and not pass suddenly into other bodies; and for the same reason, they enclosed them in the most durable buildings, endeavouring thereby, as much as in them lay, to render them eternal. The Egyptians, says Diodorus Siculus, make small account of the time of this life, as being limited; but highly value that which after death is accompanied with a glorious memory of virtue. They call the houses of the living, inns; because they inhabit them but a short space; but the sepulchres of the dead, eternal mansions, because they continue with the gods for an infinite space; therefore, in the structure of their houses they are not very solicitous, but think no cost sufficient in sumptuously adorning their sepulchres. However, though the Egyptians were of opinion, that as long as the body endured, the soul continued with it; yet it did not quicken or animate the body, but remained only as an attendant, or guardian, unwilling to leave her former habitation.

The reason why the Egyptians built their sepulchres in the form of pyramids, was, because this is the most permanent form of structure, being neither over-pressed by its own weight, nor so subject to the sinking in of rain as other buildings are: or they might hereby intend to represent their gods; for anciently the Gentiles expressed them by columns fashioned like cones, or by quadrilateral obelisks.

The mummy-pits, as called by modern travellers, are in the Lybian deserts, three or four leagues distant from the three great pyramids, and a little to the westward of the place where the city of Memphis once stood; these pits are square, and built of good stone, or hewn out of the solid rock. When the people, who have the care of the mummies, have removed the sand from the surface, they take up a great stone which covers the mouth of the pit, and let down those who would view them by ropes, or a man may go down by putting his feet into the holes on the sides; the shallowest of these pits are thirty-two feet deep; at the bottom are square openings and passages ten or fifteen feet long, which lead into square arched rooms, in which the embalmed bodies lie, some of them in chests or coffins of wood, others in stone coffins, and others in coffins made only of pieces of linen cloth, gummed or glued together, which are as strong as the wooden ones. With these mummies are usually found the figures of birds and beasts, and little images of several sorts, some made

*Mummy
pits, or ta-
tacombs.*

made of copper, others of stone, and others of several sorts of earth. The danger of entering the pyramids and mummy-pits is intimated by several travellers, on account of the thievish Arabs, who watch all opportunities of plundering those who come to view them.

*The
Sphinx.*

In speaking of the pyramids, we should not omit mentioning the colossus, or, at least, the head of one, which stands near the largest pyramid. It is usually called a sphynx, the upper-part of which should resemble a woman, and the lower-part a lion. By this figure the Egyptians in their hieroglyphics represented a harlot; intimating, the danger of being smitten with a beautiful faithless woman, whom the fond lover would, probably, in the end, find as cruel and rapacious as a lion. Nothing more of this figure is now discernible but from the shoulders upwards, and yet it is near thirty feet in height, and seems to be hewn out of the solid rock. It is a question whether there was ever any more of the figure, though Pliny, and some of the ancients, give it a belly, and much larger dimensions, making it to be one hundred and two feet in compass; and some of our modern writers pretend, that there is a subterraneous passage from the first pyramid to the head, which is hollow, suggesting, that the heathen priests used to deliver their oracles from it; but it does not seem well proved that there is any such passage under ground from the pyramid to the sphynx, or that any oracles were ever delivered from hence.

Labyrinth.

Another curiosity, mentioned by ancient and modern writers, is a labyrinth near the banks of the river Nile, towards the Upper Egypt, built by king Pfamniticus I. the greatest part of it under ground, and containing, within the compass of one wall, twelve palaces and a thousand houses; the walls, pillars, and roofs of marble, to which there was only one entrance, and so many intricate turnings and windings, that it was impossible for a stranger to find his way through, or get back again, if he had entered it without a guide. The marble, it is said, was laid with so much art, that neither wood nor cement were used in the whole fabric.

*Celebrated
well.*

At Materea, about five miles north-east of Cairo, there is a well, which with that in the castle of Cairo, is the only one of good water in the whole country. It is reported, that the Virgin Mary, and her husband Joseph, rested here, when they fled with our Saviour from Herod, and that being very thirsty, a spring issued suddenly out of the earth for their relief.

The

The province of the Higher, or Upper Egypt, anciently called Thebais, is bounded on the east side by the Red Sea all the way, on the north by Middle Egypt, on the west by the desert of Barca, and on the south by Nubia and the coast of Abex. It is by far the least cultivated and populous of all the three. Most of its towns, or rather villages, are very thinly inhabited. Sayd, anciently Thebes, or the city with a hundred gates, was formerly here the capital of the kingdom; but it is now inconsiderable, and has nothing to boast of, its grandeur, but great columns of marble and porphyry, which lie half buried in the ground, and statues and obelisks of a prodigious size, with hieroglyphics upon them. The same are to be met with in most parts of this country; an argument that it once had very considerable towns, and magnificent buildings. Minio, a neat town, is famous for an earthen manufacture of water-pots, or vessels, not only very curiously made, but said to give an uncommon freshness to the water; and, on that account, are in great request all over Egypt, but especially at Cairo. The Turks and Arabs make the best opium at the village of Aboutic, which is of note for the great quantities of black poppies that grow in and about it. This opium is thence conveyed all over Turkey and India. The inhabitants of this division of Egypt are composed chiefly of Cophti Christians and Arabs: the former are the more numerous, and have their bishops to preside over them, who are subject to the patriarch of Alexandria.

*Upper
Egypt.*

There still remain some remarkable things to be related of this country, which every curious traveller who passes through it takes notice of. In this rank is,

*Some
things
Egypt is re-
markable
for.*

The papyrus, an aquatic plant, or growing by the banks of the river Nile. According to the description, Pliny, after Theophrastus, gives us of it, its stalk is triangular, and of a thickness that may be grasped in the hand, its root crooked, and it terminates by fibrous bunches composed of long and weak pedicles. It has been observed in Egypt by Guilandinus, an author of the sixteenth century, who has given us a learned commentary on the passages of Pliny where mention is made of it; and it is also described in Prosper Alpinus and in Lobel. The Egyptians call it berd, and they eat that part of the plant which is near the roots. A plant named papero, much resembling the papyrus of Egypt, grows likewise in Sicily: it is described in Lobel's *Adversaria*: Ray, and several others after him, believed it was the same species; however,

Papyrus.

however, it does not seem that the ancients made use of that of Sicily; and M. de Jussieu thinks, they ought not to be confounded, especially by reading in Strabo, that the papyrus grew only in Egypt, or in the Indies. Pliny, Gaillardinus, Montfaucon, and the count de Caylus, are of this opinion. The internal parts of the rind of this plant were the only that were made into paper, and the manner of the manufacture was thus; strips, or thin flakes, of every length that could be obtained; being laid upon a table, other strips were placed across, and pasted to them by means of water and a press; so that this paper was a texture of several strips, and it even appears, that, in the time of the emperor Claudius, the Romans made paper of three lays. Pliny also informs us, that the strips of the papyrus were left to dry in the sun, and afterwards distributed according to the different qualities fit for different kinds of paper; scarce more than twenty strips could be separated from each stalk. The paper of the Romans never exceeded thirteen fingers breadth, and this was their finest and most beautiful, as that of Fannius. In order to be deemed perfect, it was to be thin, compact, white, and smooth; which is much the same with what we require in our rag-paper. It was sleeked with a tooth or shell, and this kept it from soaking the ink, and made it glisten. The Roman paper received an agglutination as well as ours, which was prepared with flour of wheat, diluted with boiling-water, on which were poured some drops of vinegar; or with crumbs of leavened bread diluted with boiling-water, and passed through a bolting-cloth. Being afterwards beat with a hammer, it was agglutinated a second time, put to the press, and extended again with the hammer. This account of Pliny is confirmed by Cassiodorus, who, speaking of the leaves of the papyrus used in his time, says, that they were white as snow, and composed of a great number of small pieces, without any junction appearing in them, which seems to suppose necessarily the use of size. The Egyptian papyrus seems even to be known in the time of Homer; but it was not, according to the testimony of Varro, till about the time of the conquests of Alexander, that it began to be manufactured with the perfections art always adds to nature. Paper made in this manner, with the rind of this Egyptian plant, was that which was chiefly used till the tenth century; when some person imagined the making of it with pounded cotton reduced into a pulp. This method, known in China several

veral ages before, appeared at last in the empire of the East, yet without any certain knowlege of the author, or the time and place of the invention. All public acts and diplomas were written on the Egyptian paper, till the eleventh contury; and it is probable, that linen-rag paper was invented some time in that century, as then the Egyptian paper began to be disused in the West, and that of cotton in the East. However, there is no finding an exact date to this discovery; for, notwithstanding the most diligent search of the learned antiquary Montfaucon, both in France and Italy, he could never find a book, or leaf of paper, such as is now used, before the year 1270.

The next remarkable thing to be met with in Egypt is the hatching of chickens in ovens. The eggs are kept heated with so temperate a warmth, which imitates so exactly the natural heat of a hen, that chickens are at length formed and hatched. It has been disputed whether this can be effected in any other country besides Egypt, where the natural heat of the climate is thought to contribute much towards these productions; but M. Thevenot tells us, that the duke of Florence sent for some of the Cophtris (who are the only Egyptians that follow this business) and hatched chickens in Italy in the same manner. Very lately some experiments have been made in France, for hatching chickens by the fermentation of tan (P).

*Hatching
chickens in
ovens.*

Another

(P) M. Bauffau du Bignon, the author of these experiments inserted in the fourth volume of the Memoirs, presented to the Academy of Sciences, says, that the best tan for this purpose is that which is used for the hides of oxen, that come to the French generally from Ireland. This tan must be procured when newly taken out of the pits, because it will serve longer, and it must not be suffered to contract any more moisture, being already too wet. First, a pretty high and broad bed is to be made of it, in order that the vessel, which is to serve as an oven for the chickens, may be on all sides

surrounded with three times as much tan as it measures in diameter. Previous to this, if the tan is too moist, humidity and smell may be diminished by often stirring it.

In a fortnight, three weeks, or a month, at latest, the tan will be heated to the required degree; but if it does not grow hot in this time, by still retaining too much moisture, it must be stirred again, and as it shrinks in proportion to its moisture, it must be stirred more than once, if it be much shrunk, and collected into a mass.

It may be known when it has acquired a proper degree of moisture and dryness, if a drop

*Resurrec-
tion of
human
bones.*

Another thing which creates admiration in the credulous traveller, as well as the superstitious natives, both Christian and Mohammedan, is the pretended annual resurrection of human bodies, some say of whole limbs, and others entire bones, in a certain burial-place near Old Cairo, on Good Friday, and the two preceding days. M. Thevenot relates, that he went to see the place on Good Friday, where he found a good many bones; but suspected they were scattered there on purpose to serve the lucrative views of some pious fraud. Discovering his opinion to some about him, he was taken to be an

drop of water cannot be squeezed out of a handful, and if scarce any moisture remains in the hand of him that squeezes. Then it usually ferments in a fortnight, and its heat is easily ascertained, by introducing a slender stick from the top to the bottom, and drawing it out immediately after, to judge of the degree of heat by feeling it.

The tan will retain its heat at thirty-two degrees during an entire month, without any other care than keeping the opening of the oven more or less shut up, and the heat will continue naturally for three months successively at the twenty-eighth degree.

As the heat increases during some time, there is no occasion to be uneasy if it is not yet at the thirty-second degree. Two or three days are required to be assured of its constancy, to fix it and dissipate the vapours and interior moisture of the vessel or oven, during which time the thirty-second degree will happen; and as the heat increases insensibly for a fortnight or three weeks, and decreases when past this term, it will be easy not to be mistaken, the covering and different ac-

counts kept from time to time being sufficient to prevent all inconveniency.

Nothing more for re-heating is required than a second bed of tan made in a month or three weeks later than the first; and it will be ready to receive the eggs and chicks when the first appears to grow too cool. During the heat of the second, the first may be immediately stirred up, and it will afterwards yield the same service as the second, which may be so continued for three years successively.

The author adds, that it is now three years since he made these experiments with great success, and that in this manner he has brought forth and reared a great number of very fine and well-tasted chickens. He found also, by his experiments, that tan ferments for more than three years after it has been taken out of the pits; so that the curious who have tan, and use it for maintaining heat in their green-houses, may likewise see birds produced from its warmth in the most rigorous seasons; which, no doubt must be a double pleasure to them arising from the same cause.

atheist,

atheist, and would have exposed himself to the danger of being insulted, had he not prudently desisted from undeceiving the multitude, by seeming to join them in opinion.

The animals which Egypt is remarkable for, are, first, *Crocodiles.* the crocodile, formerly thought to be peculiar to this country; but there is no material difference between these creatures and the alligators at the mouth of the Ganges, and in other rivers of India and America. Both are known to be amphibious animals, accustomed to land and water; they grow to a prodigious length, twenty feet and upwards. In shape they are like a lizard; with four short feet, or rather claws, and some of them are so large as to swallow a man; they have a flat head, their eyes indifferently large, and their back covered with broad scales, like some antiquated pieces of armour. They seem to move with the greatest strength and agility in the water; and though they run a great pace by land, yet their bodies are so long and unwieldy, that they cannot easily turn, whereby their prey escapes them on shore. They watch, therefore, in the sedge, and other cover, by the sides of rivers, and so much resemble the trunk of a tree, that, it is said, travellers, mistaking them for such, have been unwarily surpris'd. As for the tears and alluring voice ascribed to the crocodile by the ancients, they may be considered as mere fiction; and the same may be said of the little bird trochileus, which is reported to live on the meat which she picks out of the crocodile's teeth; and the rat ichneumon, which jumps into the crocodile's mouth, and eats its way out again through his belly. Notwithstanding crocodiles grow to such a prodigious size, it seems they proceed from an egg no bigger than a turkey's, hatched in the warm sand.

The hippopotamus, or sea-horse, is another amphibious animal which frequents the Nile. *The hippopotamus.* M. Thevenot says, he saw one, which was shot by some janizaries as it was grazing on the land. It was about the bigness of a camel, of a tawny colour, the hinder part made more like an ox, and the head like that of a horse, with great open nostrils, the eyes and ears small, thick large feet, almost round, and four claws, the tail like an elephant's, and not more hair than upon an elephant. In the lower jaw it had four great teeth, half a foot long, two of them crooked, and as large as the horns of an ox, and the other two strait, but standing out in length. These monsters are very rare, even

even in Africa, for none had been seen there for many years before.

*The came-
leon.*

The cameleon is reckoned among the remarkable animals of Egypt, but it is not peculiar to this country. In shape and size it partly resembles a lizard, and partly a frog, and is, in a true light, of a greenish colour, but assumes the colour of most things it stands near. It was formerly thought to have lived only upon air, but has been observed to take flies, by darting out its tongue, which is of an extraordinary length; however, those that have kept them in boxes, observe that they will live several months without any nourishment but what they draw in with their breath.

Ostrich.

The ostrich is another animal very common in the deserts of Egypt and Arabia. They are the tallest fowls we meet with any where, and will strike a blow like a horse, with their huge feet. Their backs are shaped almost like a camel's, and they run a prodigious pace, assisted by their wings, which are of little use to them in flying, for they can scarce raise themselves from the ground, and the Arabs frequently ride them down.

Basilisk.

The serpent called the basilisk, or cockatrice, whose very eyes dart certain death, if we may credit the ancients, is said to be found also in Egypt; but this may be rather supposed to be only a simile of the ancient poets, to illustrate how fatally young men are frequently allured and captivated by the eyes of some fair charmer to their destruction. The asp is another little serpent found also in this country, by whose bite the celebrated Cleopatra and her ladies chose to die, the poison operating suddenly, and throwing the party into a deep sleep; though its effects are said to be various, some who are wounded by it dying in a laughing fit, and others weeping.

Asp.

*Other ani-
mals.*

Egypt is famous for camels, dromedaries, and fine horses, as the neighbouring country of Arabia. Oxen, buffaloes, goats, and sheep, are to be met with likewise in great plenty here; especially the sheep with fat tails, which weigh several pounds. They abound also with poultry, geese, ducks, and a great variety of small birds; but fish is not very good or plentiful, unless in the maritime parts, and near the mouth of the Nile. Upon the retiring of the waters of that river to the usual channel, a multitude of frogs and other insects are produced; and was there not a large fowl like a stork, perhaps the ibis of the ancient Egyptians, which constantly devours them, they

they would be annually afflicted with the plague of frogs.

As Egypt is inhabited by several different people, their stature, complexion, and habits are different. The genius, character, persons, and manner of life of the Turks and Arabs, are as already described in treating of their countries in Asia. The Moors and common people, who are natives of the country, are almost as swarthy as the Arabs in this hot climate; and they are generally an ill-looking people, and very slovenly, especially the Cophtis. The Egyptian women that are not exposed to the sun have fine complexions as well as features. All of them, in general, are very frugal in their diet.

Present inhabitants of Egypt.

The Egyptians are certainly a very ancient nation, though far from being so ancient as they make themselves, when they give us a catalogue of their princes, some of whom, according to them, must have lived several thousands of years before the creation. But, as is observed by some, that the Egyptians by years did not intend the periodical revolution of the sun, but of the moon, it may not be difficult to account for this mistake; besides, as it has been long since observed of the Chinese and other people, who run up their original so very high, that they give us no tolerable account or history of those pretended times, but, on the contrary, relate, that all arts and sciences, even agriculture, were introduced among them about the times our histories relate; if the world had been so old as they suggest, it must be very strange that these arts had not been introduced before, without which it would be very difficult for mankind to subsist.

History of the Egyptian sovereigns.

That Egypt was planted by Misraim, the grandson of Noah, cannot be asserted, because it is very difficult to shew who were the first planters of almost any nation in the universe. It is sufficient that it appears, that this and several of the neighbouring nations were planted soon after the dispersion of the people at the tower of Babel. Cham, the son of Noah, is generally held to be the same with Jupiter Ammon, and Misraim, his grandson, the same with Osiris, the great deity of the Egyptians, and from him, it is said, descended that race of monarchs who had the general denomination of Pharaohs; but from whom, or how the word Pharaoh came to be the style of their kings, no satisfactory reason can be given.

There are reckoned above sixty princes of the line of these Pharaohs, and they reigned, as it is said, in an interrupted succession to the year of the world 3435, when

Pharaoh Psammiticus, the second monarch of that name, was conquered by Cambyfes II. king of Persia, who united Egypt to that empire, under which it remained till the reign of Darius, being upwards of a hundred years, when it revolted from that crown, and became an independent kingdom again, under Amyrteus, the first king after the revolt, in which state it continued about fifty years, when Ochus, king of Persia, recovered the dominion of it again; and it remained subject to the Persian monarchs till Alexander the Great defeated Darius, when it fell under the power of that prince, with the rest of the provinces of the Persian empire.

After the death of Alexander, Ptolemy, the son of Lagus, or as others insinuate, the son of Philip of Macedon, and consequently half-brother of Alexander, found means to mount the throne of Egypt, and render it an independent kingdom once again. His successors ever after retained the name of Ptolemy; and this line continued between two and three hundred years, the last sovereign being the famous Cleopatra, wife and sister to Ptolemy Dionysius, the last king, and mistress successively to Julius Cæsar and Mark Anthony.

It was Ptolemy Philadelphus, son of the first Ptolemy, who collected the Alexandrian library, said to consist of seven hundred thousand volumes, and the same prince caused the Scriptures to be translated into Greek, but whether by seventy-two interpreters, and in the manner as is commonly related, is justly questioned. The Ptolemies sometimes extended their dominion over great part of Syria, and were frequently at war with the kings of Syria, in which they met with various success. After the death of Cleopatra this kingdom fell under the power of the Romans, and continued a Roman province till the reign of Heraclius, the emperor of Constantinople; when the people, being disgusted with their governors, called in Omar, the third caliph of the Saracens, and submitted themselves to the Mohammedan power, about the year 640. But surely the administration of the Greek emperors must be very grievous, which could induce a Christian nation to make choice of a Saracen for their sovereign.

The caliphs of Babylon were sovereigns here till about the year 870, when the Egyptians set up a caliph of their own, called the caliph of Cairo, to whom the Saracens of Africa and Spain were subject; but the governors of the provinces, or sultans under the caliphs of Babylon and Cairo, soon wrested the civil power out of the hands of their

their caliphs, or high-priests, leaving them only a shadow of sovereignty.

About the year 1160, Affareddin, or Saracen, general of Norradin, the Saracen sultan of Damascus, subdued the kingdom of Egypt, and usurped the dominion of it; being succeeded in this kingdom by his son Saladin, who reduced also the kingdoms of Damascus, Mesopotamia, and Palestine, under his power, and about the year 1190 took Jerusalem from the Christians. It was this prince who established a body of troops in Egypt like the present janizaries, composed of the sons of Christians taken in war, or purchased of the Tartars, to whom he gave the name of mamalukes, which signifies no more than *slave*. Among the forces of the Mohammedan princes the title of slave is indeed very honourable, being expressive of a particular devotion to the service of the sovereign, and such consequently are intitled to greater privileges than other subjects. The posterity of Affareddin enjoyed the crown till the year 1242, when the mamalukes deposed Elmutan, as they had done his father Melech Assalach some years before, and set one of their own officers upon the throne. The first king of the race of the mamalukes was Turquemienus, and he and his successors were engaged in continual wars with the Christians in Syria and Palestine, till Araphus, the sixth sultan, entirely dispossessed the Christians of the Holy Land. The ninth sultan, Melechnasser, subdued the island of Cyprus, and made it tributary to Egypt. About the year 1501, Campson Gaurus, the fifteenth sultan of the mamalukes, entering into an alliance with Ismael, the sophi of Persia, against Selim, the third emperor, and tenth king of the Ottoman family, the confederates received several memorable defeats; and Tonombeius II. who succeeded Campson Gaurus, was deposed and murdered by Selimus, and, according to some accounts, hanged up at one of the gates of Grand Cairo. Gazelle, one of the grandees of the mamalukes, maintained a war for some time against Selimus, but was at length defeated, and Egypt made a province of the Ottoman empire. The mamaluke sultans were always chosen by a majority of mamalukes out of their own body, who were so jealous of the kingdom's being made hereditary, that they scarce ever elected the son of the preceding sultan; and if the choice ever happened to fall upon such a one, they were so apprehensive of its being made an ill precedent, that they never rested till they deposed him.

*Present
govern-
ment of
Egypt.*

Since the Ottoman emperors have had the dominion of this kingdom, they always governed it by a viceroy, styled the basia of Grand Cairo; but as Egypt is subdivided into several inferior governments, these governors are not sent from Constantinople, or appointed by the viceroy, but are natives of Egypt, and seem to be vested with sovereign power in their respective districts. The grand signior has thought fit to humour them in this respect, rather than hazard the revolt of so rich a province, which is now esteemed the granary of Constantinople, as it was anciently of Rome; for this is a soil so fertilized by the Nile, that it is not in the power of the Turks, it seems, to render it barren. But another great reason of its continuing fruitful is, that the Egyptians, by being still governed by their own princes, have an inheritance in their lands, which are privileges very few of the subjects of Turkey enjoy besides; neither dares the Turkish government to overload this people with taxes, for fear of a general revolt; so that, except what the viceroy and his creatures illegally extort from them, the whole revenue raised by the government does not amount to a million of our money, of which two thirds are spent within the kingdom, and not more than one third comes into the grand signior's treasury.

Gypsies.

We must not forget that from Egypt came that vagrant race called gypsies, dispersed into every kingdom of Europe and Asia. They were originally called Zinganees by the Turks, from their captain Zinganeus, who, when sultan Selim made a conquest of Egypt, about the year 1517, refused to submit to the Turkish yoke, and retired into the deserts, where they lived by rapine and plunder, and frequently came down into the plains of Egypt, committing great outrages in the towns upon the Nile, under the dominion of the Turks. But being at length subdued and banished Egypt, they agreed to disperse themselves in small parties into every country in the known world; and as they were natives of Egypt, a country where the occult sciences, or black art, as it was called, was supposed to have arrived to great perfection, and which, in that credulous age, was in great vogue with persons of all religions and persuasions, they found the people wherever they came very easily imposed on.

*Causes of
the super-
stition of
the Egypt-
cians.*

If we trace these cheats, these illusions of fancy, back to their original source, we shall find them all flowing from the superstition in which the ideas of the Egyptians were

were primitively immersed. How could this people avoid being highly superstitious? Egypt was the country of enchantment; imagination was there perpetually struck by the grand machines of the marvellous, and nothing was to be seen but phantoms to terror and admiration. The prince was an object of astonishment and fear; like the thunder which gathers in the depths of the clouds, and seems there to roll with greater grandeur and majesty; it was from the inmost recesses of his labyrinths, and his palace, that the monarch dictated his will. The kings never shewed themselves without the terrifying and formidable apparatus of a power sprung from a divine original. The death of the king was an apotheosis; the earth sunk under the weight of their mausoleums. By these powerful gods Egypt was covered with superb obelisks, filled with wonderful inscriptions, and with enormous pyramids, whose summits were lost in the air; by these beneficent gods these lakes were formed which secured Egypt against the inattentions of nature.

More formidable than the throne and its monarchs, the temples and their pontiffs still farther imposed on the imagination of the Egyptians. In one of these temples was the colossus of Serapis: no mortal dared to approach it. With the duration of this colossus was connected that of the world; whoever should break this talisman would have replunged the earth into its first chaos. No bounds were set to credulity; every thing in Egypt was ænigma, wonder, and mystery. All the temples gave oracles; all the caverns bellowed forth horrible howlings; every where were seen tremulous tripods, the Pythia in a rage, victims, priests, and magicians, who, invested with the power of the gods, were ready to exert their vengeance.

The philosophers, armed against superstition, rose up against it, but soon engaged in the labyrinth of too abstracted metaphysics, dispute divided their opinions; interest and fanaticism took advantage of them, and produced the chaos of their different systems; from thence sprung the pompous mysteries of Isis, Osiris, and Horus. Then, covered with the mysterious and sublime darkness of theology and religion, the imposture remained undiscovered. If some Egyptians perceived it, by the glimmering light of doubt, revenge, always suspended over the head of the indiscreet, turned their eyes from the light, and locked up truth in their mouths. Even the kings, who, to guard against all disrespect, had at first, in concert with the priests, raised up terror and supersti-

tion about the throne, were themselves terrified at them, and soon entrusted the temples with the sacred depositum of the young princes; fatal epoch of the tyranny of the Egyptian priests! No obstacle could then oppose their power. Their sovereigns were encircled from their infancy with the bandage of opinion, free and independent as they were; and while they might see nothing in these priests but cheats and mercenary enthusiasts, they became their slaves and victims. The people, the imitators of their kings, followed their example, and all Egypt fell prostrate before the feet of the pontiff and the altar of superstition.

S E C T III.

Of Ethiopia, comprehending the Countries of Nubia, Abyssinia, Abesh, and Anian; Zanguebar, Monomotapa, Monemugi, and Caffraria.

THE ancients, as it appears from their histories, called all that they knew of Africa to the southward of Egypt, Ethiopia, and the people Ethiopes, from their dark complexions; but the moderns include only under that denomination the countries of Nubia, Abyssinia, Abesh, and Anian, which are bounded by Egypt and the desert of Barca on the north; by the Red Sea and the Eastern Ocean on the east; by Zanguebar and Caffraria on the south; and by Guinea, Nigritia, and Zaara, on the west; however, all the countries still, according to the ancient division, that lie almost in a straight line from Egypt to the Cape of Good Hope, may be comprehended under the general name of Ethiopia, divided, as before mentioned, into Upper and Lower.

Boundaries of Ethiopia, and the countries comprehended under that name.

Nubia. Nubia is bounded by Egypt towards the north; by Abyssinia on the south; by the coast of Abesh on the east; and by Zaara and Nigritia on the west. It is said to be four hundred leagues in length, and two hundred in breadth; but scarce any two historians or geographers agree in these matters, seeming to guess at almost every thing they relate of Nubia, which is the case of almost every other inland country of Africa. Some tell us of a considerable river that rises here, and falls into the Nile; that the country abounds in gold, musk, sandal wood, and ivory; that it has elephants, horses, camels, lions, and such other animals, wild and tame, as are found in the neigh-

neighbouring country of Abyssinia; but they give us not the least intimation whether it be a monarchy or commonwealth; or whether it is divided into many little kingdoms and states, the last of which is most probable, because we hear so little of the inhabitants. The same uncertainty we meet with in regard to their religion; but it is highly probable Paganism, Judaism, Christianity, or Mohammedanism, is professed by one or other of the natives, people of all those various religions bordering upon them.

Abyssinia has now little communication with the rest of *Abyssinia* the world, the Turks having possessed themselves of Abesh, which runs along the western coast of the Red Sea, and the rest of it being surrounded by mountains or unpassable deserts. Within these it appears to be an exceeding fine country, diversified with woods and fruitful plains, well planted with palm-trees, dates, and cedars, and watered by several noble rivers. The river Nile rises in the midst of it, and having first taken a circuit almost round its source, runs one hundred miles to the northward, and afterwards two hundred miles towards the east; then turning to the south and south-east, continues its course two hundred and fifty miles farther. In this course it forms the lake of Dambea, of one hundred and twenty miles extent. From thence it takes a semicircular sweep of five hundred miles, and then turning directly north, enters the kingdom of Egypt. This winding course not only renders the soil extremely fertile, but is of great advantage to inland commerce; though, after the Nile's entering Egypt, there are so many steep falls and cataracts, that the river is no longer properly navigable for the purposes of traffic. Being swelled by the rains which annually fall at a certain season between the tropics, it overflows all the lower grounds that border on it; and this is the case of all the rivers that rise within the tropics, though the ancients were at so great a loss to account for this periodical flood; and what increases the flood still more are the torrents that fall from the numerous hills with which this country is incumbered. The inhabitants, however, have this advantage from their hills, that they can remove thither in the hot season, and enjoy a cooler air than they do in Egypt, which lies several degrees north of Abyssinia. Their vallies, also, rendered fruitful by their annual rains and the numerous rivulets, produce plenty of corn, rice, wine, flax, sugar, and fruits proper for the climate. Their flax is esteemed the finest in the world; and from hence,

it is said, the Egyptians had theirs, of which they made the fine linen of Egypt mentioned in the Scripture; and had they, at this day, an opportunity of exporting the produce of their soil, this country alone, it is thought, might raise rice, sugar, and other commodities, sufficient to supply all the neighbouring countries. The Turks, who are masters of the coast of the Red Sea, though they will suffer no other nation to trade to Abyssinia, annually export great quantities of rice from hence, particularly at the times of the great pilgrimages to Mecca, Arabia not affording provision sufficient for their subsistence. Gold is also very plentiful here, of which the Turks get some; and had the Abyssinians an opportunity of bartering it for the merchandize of Europe, as great a plenty of it might be found in this country as any where, though none of the gold mines are wrought at present, but only those of silver and copper. Amongst other precious stones they have the largest emeralds in the world. Their cattle are camels, oxen, sheep, asses, all in great plenty, and very large; their wild beasts are such as are common to the rest of Africa; but what they are most famous for, is an excellent breed of horses, equal to those of Arabia; or, as some conjecture, those of Arabia are, in reality, bred in Abyssinia, where they abound in rich pastures. As to the persons of the Ethiopians or Abyssinians, they are generally of a good stature; their complexion a deep black, but their features more agreeable than their southern neighbours, having neither flat noses nor thick lips like other Caffres. The sovereign of this country was once absolute; but at present the great men set up for princes in their respective governments, and the king can transact nothing of any consequence without them. It was the king of this country, that the Europeans used to style Prester John. The Portuguese, it is said, when they first discovered it, seeing a cross always carried before him, stiled him priest, or Presbyter Maximus. He took upon him the supreme ecclesiastical as well as civil power; others say, the Turks gave him the name of Prester Cham, or Cam, that is, *king of slaves*, because they purchased most of their Negro slaves in this country. The government appears now to be a republic, or rather a mixed monarchy, in which the prince's power is extremely limited by the great men. As to the common people, it is not very material whether the power be lodged in the king or lords, for they are all slaves either to the one or the other. Their religion is a mixture of Christianity and Judaism; but

but they seem to adhere more to the Greek church than to the Latin. They keep both the Christian and the Jewish sabbath, and both baptize and circumcise their children, and even their females. They are said to have a great deal of vivacity and natural wit, to be of a teachable disposition, and fond of learning, though they have but few opportunities of improving themselves. The better sort of them are clothed in vests, made of silk stuffs or cotton, after the manner of the Franks in Turkey; but their poor people go almost naked, having only a small piece of skin or coarse stuff wrapped about their waists. They have no other bread than thin cakes baked upon the hearth, as they want them; they eat all manner of flesh almost as the Europeans do, except swine's flesh, and such other meats as were prohibited to the Jews; they also abstain from things strangled, and from blood, killing their meat in the same manner as the Jews do. As to the poor people, they live chiefly upon milk, butter, cheese, roots, herbs, and what their flocks and herds produce. This is the country from whence it is supposed, the queen of Sheba came to hear the wisdom of Solomon; and from whence the eunuch, prime minister of queen Candace, came, who was converted to Christianity, and baptised by St. Philip. Ethiopia was then a mighty empire, subject to one sovereign, who commanded the sea-coast as well as the inland country. When the Portuguese missionaries resorted to Ethiopia, towards the latter end of the fifteenth century, they brought over a great many of the Ethiopians to their religion, and persuaded the emperor not only to acknowledge the pope's supremacy, but to admit a patriarch amongst them sent thither from Rome. The government also consented to abolish their ancient rites and ceremonies, and conform entirely to the ritual of the Latin church; but many of the nobility and governors of the provinces, with a majority of the common people, having the greatest abhorrence of these innovations, rose in arms against their emperor, which occasioned civil wars in Ethiopia, that lasted upwards of one hundred years, wherein many thousands were killed. But the court, with the assistance of the Jesuits, European engineers, and some Portuguese troops, were generally victorious over those of the ancient religion, but could never subdue their obstinate perseverance in it; and several provinces revolted entirely from the emperor. However, the Ethiopian emperors continued still to profess the tenets of the Latin church, and to submit to the dictates of Rome;
till

till at length the Jesuits, under pretence of maintaining the pope's ecclesiastical jurisdiction, took upon them to direct most secular affairs, treating the prince rather as a viceroy to the pope than sovereign of the country; and having erected and garrisoned several forts, were sending for European forces to maintain their usurped power, when the emperor, as well as the nobility, taking the alarm, agreed at once to abolish popery, and restore their ancient religion. The Romish priests were hereupon generally sacrificed to the fury of the people, and their patriarch very narrowly escaped out of the country with his life: and when afterwards three Capuchins came as far as Squaquena, upon the Red Sea, from whence they sent letters to the emperor of Ethiopia to obtain leave to come into his territories again; that prince requested the Turkish bassa, who commanded on the coast, to suffer no Franks to come that way into his territories, and to send him the heads of those Capuchins. This the bassa not only obliged him in, but sent him their skins flayed off and stuffed, that he might know them to be Franks by their colour, and priests by their shaved crowns. Thus have the Romish missionaries procured themselves to be banished out of almost every country where they have planted their religion. They have, indeed, by their skill in medicine and mathematics, and an artful address, insinuated themselves into the courts of many great princes; but their ill advised advancing of the pope's supremacy to an extravagant height, together with their endeavours to control the government in civil as well as ecclesiastical matters, has ever occasioned their expulsion. Thus it was in Japan, where the emperor, finding them encroaching upon his civil authority, ordered every Christian in his dominions to be massacred, and that no Christian should ever set foot on shore there again. This also has put a stop to their progress in China, and occasioned very severe persecutions of the Christians there. Still the Jesuits persist in their encroachments on princes where they have an opportunity; but the consequence must be, as we lately have found it verified by the conduct of the kings of Portugal and France, that they will at length procure their own extirpation by the general consent of Christian princes, as the Knights Templars did by their insolence, in the fourteenth century. There seems nothing more material to add in regard to the Abyssinians, but that the sons of the emperor succeed according to their seniority,

as do those of the nobility who have obtained an independency; but the rest of the people have no inheritance of their lands, nor can dispose of their estates or effects, but by the permission of the emperors, or their respective lords. The prince is styled Negascht by his subjects, which in their language signifies, *king of kings*; and for this reason the Europeans give him the title of emperor. The Persians also give him the title of Pat-scha, *the disposer of kingdoms*, which is the highest title known in Asia, and equal to that of emperor in Europe. But every one of these princes, at his accession to the throne, assumes a particular title; one styles himself the Pillar of Faith; another, the Virgin's Incense; and another, the Beloved of God, sprung from the stock of Judah, the son of David, the son of Solomon, &c. for they have a tradition, that their princes are descended from Solomon by the queen of Sheba. The arms of the emperor are a lion rampant, holding a cross, with this motto, *Vicit Leo de Tribu Judah*.

That part of Ethiopia which is called by the name of *Abeß and Anian*, is bounded by Egypt and Abyssinia towards the north and west; by the Red Sea and the Eastern Ocean, on the east; and by Zanguebar on the south; extending from the fifth degree of north latitude to the twentieth. Anian lies upon, or near the Eastern Ocean, and the Red Sea. The Portuguese and other Europeans, who have visited it of late years, assure us, it is a perfect desert, from latitude five, to the streights of Babelmandel, and even within those streights for several miles. The Turks are masters of the coast of Abeß to the northward of Anian, and in the principal ports Suaquem and Arquico, about one hundred and fifty miles distant from each other, keep strong garrisons, which command the country, a fruitful tract of ground, populous, and abounding with plenty of most things.

Under the name of Zanguebar, may be included all the east coast of Africa, extending from five degrees north to twenty-eight south, and comprehending the countries of Magadoxa, Melinda, Quiloa, Mozambic, and Sofala. All the people upon this coast are in alliance, or rather subject to the Portuguese. The country of Magadoxa is barren, affording scarce any merchandize or cattle, unless a good breed of horses, which the natives, a mixture of Pagans, Mohammedans, and Christians, sell to the Portuguese, who dispose of them again to the Arabs. Melinda, though it

it lies so near the equator, is exceeding pleasant, fruitful, and healthful, being frequently refreshed with showers and fine sea-breezes. The city of the same name, and the capital of the Portuguese dominions in this part of the world, is situate in two degrees and a half south latitude, on an island at the mouth of a river also of the same name. It is a large populous place, well built, and has a good harbour commanded by a strong citadel. Some calculate that the inhabitants of the city, and the little island on which it stands, do not amount to less than two hundred thousand souls, great part of them Christians. The public buildings, consisting of seventeen churches, nine religious houses, the governor's palace, and the magazine and town-hall, exceed any thing of the kind in magnificence that is to be found in Africa. The warehouses are stocked with all sorts of European goods, with which the Portuguese trade with the natives for gold, elephants teeth, slaves, ostrich-feathers, wax, senna, aloes, civet, ambergrise, and frankincense. The country produces also rice, millet, sugar, and fruits; and the Portuguese export great quantities of rice to their other settlements, besides what they use. The king of the country of Quiloa, which lies to the southward of Melinda, pays, it is said, a tribute in gold to the Portuguese, amounting to the value of one hundred thousand crusades annually. Excellent sugar-canes are here produced, but the Portuguese do not improve them, by reason of the unhealthiness of the climate. The country of Mozambic lies south of Quiloa; the chief town is situate on an island on the mouth of a river of the same name, in fifteen degrees south latitude. It is regularly fortified, and has a good harbour, defended by a citadel; and the island on which it stands, is thirty miles in circumference, and extremely populous. The Portuguese shipping to and from India, call here for refreshments; and, as this country produces great herds of cattle, the Portuguese kill beef, and salt it up, sending it to the Brasils, or selling it to the European shipping. They also barter European goods with the natives for their gold, elephants teeth, and slaves. The town has six churches and several monasteries. Mongale, another island-town in this country, is also garrisoned by the Portuguese, being their chief staple for European goods. The gold they receive from the natives, is found near the surface of the earth, or in the sands of rivers, no gold mines, or very few, being at present wrought in Africa.

Africa. The country or kingdom of Sofala lies south of Mozambic, and the gulf of the same name, is part of the channel of Mozambic, on the east. From the mouth of the river of the Holy Ghost to Cape Corientes, the soil is very even, barren, and desert; but from that cape to the mouth of the river Cumena, the country is fruitful and very populous. The coast is very low, and mariners discover their approach to it, not so much by their sight as smell, because it abounds with fragrant flowers. The inhabitants assert, that their gold mines yield above two millions of metigals per annum, each amounting to about twelve shillings sterling; that the ships from Zeedin and Mecca carry off above two millions a-year in time of peace; and that the governor of Mozambic, whose office lasts but three years, has above three hundred thousand crowns revenue, without reckoning the soldiers pay, and the king of Portugal's tribute. From hence Moquet concludes this to be the Ophir, whither Solomon sent ships every three years from Eziongeber, to fetch gold; Eziongeber being thought to be Suez, a sea-port on the Red Sea. This conjecture is supported by several edifices, which seem to have been built by foreigners. Some think this to be confirmed by the authority of the Septuagint, who translate the word ^p Ophir by the word *Σοφειρα*, *Sophira*; and since liquids are often put for one another, *Sophira* does not differ much from *Sofala*. Besides, Thomas Lopez, in his India voyage, relates, that the inhabitants of this country boast that they have books which prove, that in the time of Solomon, the Israelites sailed every third year towards these parts to fetch gold. The inhabitants of Quiloa, Mombaza, and Melinda, come to this country in little boats, called zambues, with stuffs of blue and white cottons, silk stuffs, yellow and red ambergrise, which they exchange here for gold and ivory, and the natives sell them again to the subjects of Monomotapa, who give them gold in return without weighing it. It is said, that when the Sofalese see ships coming, they light up fires, to signify that they shall be welcome. The capital city here, and the only one of note, is also called *Sofala*. It stands on a river of the same name, about six leagues from the sea-coast. The Portuguese are masters of it, having built a strong fortress there, ever since the year 1500. Their chief trade consists in ambergrise, gold, slaves, and silk stuffs. They likewise take

care to have those mines worked, which lie to the south of the town. This country is spacious, and little known to any but to them; and they appear to be wiser in relation to the conduct of their trade in Africa than any other of the European potentates, having not contented themselves with erecting a few forts and factories, but settled themselves upon the continent in great numbers, and brought the natives to clothe according to the European mode; which has created a considerable and profitable commerce to them.

Monomotapa.

Monomotapa, an inland country in this part of Africa, has the maritime kingdom of Sofala on the east, the river del Spiritu Santo, on the south; the mountains of Caffra-ria on the west; and the river Cauma on the north, which parts it from Monemugi. The air of this country is very temperate, the land fertile in pastures, and all the necessaries of life, being watered by several rivers, on the banks of which grow many fine trees and sugar-canes without any culture; and yet this fine country is not peopled in all parts of it. The inhabitants are rich in horned cattle, which they value more than gold. They have no beasts of burden, but a vast number of elephants, as appears from the great quantity of ivory that is exported from this country. Here are a great many gold mines; and the rivers that run through their veins, carry a great deal of gold dust along with their streams. The inhabitants dive to the bottom of the rivers and lakes, take up the sand, and carry it to the banks to separate the gold from it. They are tall, well-shaped, strong, healthy, and much more lively than the people of Mozambic and Melinda; and they are besides lovers of war, which is the trade followed by all those who do not apply themselves to commerce. This country is divided into seven provinces, or petty kingdoms, vassals to the king. Manica, situate on the south of the river del Spiritu Santo, is the capital town, and to the south of it are gold mines.

Monemugi, another country in the south of Africa, has Zanguebar on the east, Monomotapa on the south, Motamba and Makoko on the west, and Abyssinia on the north, and partly to the west, though its boundaries that way cannot be exactly ascertained. It is divided into the following parts: 1. Mujaco borders on Congo westward, on Nubia northward, on Abyssinia and on Makoko southward. That the extent of this monarchy is very great, appears by the distant countries its confines extend to, and

and the sovereign's great power by his being in continual war with his neighbour the king of Makoko. The people of Congo travel hither for elephants teeth. 2. Makoko, otherwise called Anziko. Its boundaries northward, eastward, and southward, cannot be well ascertained. The people here do not till the ground, have no property, nor any settled habitation; but, like the Arabs, wander from place to place, and subsist by plunder. They traffic in the kingdom of Angola, whither they carry slaves from their own country, and from Nubia, which they exchange for salt, glass beads, silk, knives, and other wares. 3. Gingiro, a potent kingdom, lies between Narca, the most southern kingdom of Abyssinia, and Makoko and Cambate; north and east of the first of them, and west of the latter. The great river Zebbee, that runs down to Makoko, almost environs it. When the king here purchases any thing of foreign merchants, he pays them in slaves, and these are the sons and daughters of any family, which he takes at pleasure without contradiction. 4. Cambate joins to this kingdom on the west, has Abyssinia on the north; Alaba, or the country of the Galas, on the east; and Makoko on the south. This country pays some acknowledgements to the emperor of Abyssinia, which are only voluntary. 5. Alaba, another large kingdom, still to the eastward of Cambate, inhabited by a cruel people, called Galas, and reaching to the coast of Zanguebar. 6. Monemugi Proper, so called, lies in the torrid zone, and about the equinoctial line, south of Makoko, west of Zanguebar, north of Monomotapa, and east of Congo and of the northern parts of Monomotapa. To ascertain its extent is too difficult a task, being a country so little frequented. The country known abounds with gold, silver, and copper mines, and elephants. The natives clothe themselves in silks and cottons, which they buy of strangers, and wear collars of transparent amber beads, brought them from Cambaya, which beads serve also instead of money; gold and silver being too common, and of little value among them. Their monarch always endeavours to be at peace with the princes round about him, to keep an open trade with Quiloa, Melinda, and Mombaza, on the east, and with Congo on the west, from all which parts the black merchants resort thither for gold. The Portuguese merchants report, that on the east side of Monemugi, there is a great lake full of small islands, abounding with all sorts of fowl and cattle, and inhabited by Negroes. They relate also,

that on the main land eastwards, they heard sometimes the ringing of bells, and that one could observe buildings, very much like churches; and that from these parts came men of a brown and tawny complexion, who traded with those islanders, and with the people of Monemugi. This country affords also abundance of palm-wine, and oil, and such great plenty of honey, that above half of it is lost, the blacks not being able to consume it. The air is generally very unwholesome, and excessively hot, which is the reason why no Christians undertake to travel into this empire.

Cassraria.

Cassraria is the last country that remains to be described in the southern parts of Africa. It begins at Cape Negro, about the fifteenth degree and thirty minutes south latitude; extends from thence south-easterly to the Cape of Good Hope, thence north-east to the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about the twenty-fifth degree of south latitude, which river separates it on the north-east from Monomotapa; on the north it reaches almost to the equator, where it borders on the kingdom of Makoko; and on the north-west it has Congo, or Lower Guinea, with the kingdom of Benguela. Martiniere observes, that Cassraria is not properly the name of any particular country, and that there is no nation called Caffres, the appellation being rather opprobrious, and given by the Arabs to all those who do not profess the Mohammedan religion. It is derived from the Arabic word *Cafir*, which signifies an *infidel*, or *unbeliever*. The Portuguese taking the name in a more general sense, have called Caffres all those nations of Africa who have, or seem to have, no knowledge of a deity. From these boundaries of Cassraria, it appears to be a very large country, extending from Cape Negro to that of Good-Hope, near twenty degrees, or twelve hundred English miles from north to south; from the Cape of Good-Hope north-east, to the mouth of the river Del Spiritu Sancto, about eight hundred and fifty miles; and from the same cape almost to the equinoctial line, about twenty-nine degrees, or one thousand seven hundred and forty miles. Its greatest breadth, from Cape St. Tome to the mouth of the above river, is about nine hundred miles; but from the tropic of Capricorn, up to the equinoctial line, is breadth its not much above six hundred miles. Cassraria may be divided into the kingdom of Mataman, the country of the Hottentots, *Terra de Natal*, and *Terra dos Fumos*.

Mataman

Mataman is bounded by the kingdom of Benguela on the north; by the river Bravahul on the east and south; and by the Ethiopic Ocean on the west. It extends from Cape Negro, in south latitude $16^{\circ} 30'$, to the mouth of the river Bravahul, beyond the tropic of Capricorn, in south latitude 24° , so that its greatest length, from north to south, is about four hundred and fifty English miles; but its greatest breadth, from west to east, is not above two hundred and sixty miles. About two hundred miles to the west of Cape Negro, the climate is pretty temperate; and, though the coast is very sandy, the country is pretty fruitful, and produces a great variety of provisions. The lands are extremely sandy all along the sea-coast, and the harbours bad, and little frequented. Here are no towns nor cities bordering upon the sea, but only poor scattering villages.

The country of the Hottentots is bounded on the north-west by part of the river Bravahul; on the north it extends to the tropic of Capricorn; on the north-east, the river Del Spiritu Sancto parts it from the empire of Monomotapa; on the east and south it has the Eastern Ocean; and on the west the Ethiopic Ocean.

The Cape of Good Hope, which is the most famous place for any traffic among the Hottentots, was first discovered in the year 1493, by Bartholomew Dias, a Portuguese admiral, in the reign of John II. king of Portugal. The admiral gave it the name of Cabo dos todos los Tormentos, or, *the Cape of Great Sorrows*, from the boisterous winds that are almost continually roaring there. But the king changed that name into Cabo del bonne Esperanza, or, *the Cape of Good Hope*; because, says he, there was now good hope of making prosperous voyages to the East Indies; and by that name it has been known in Europe ever since. It lies in latitude $34^{\circ} 15'$ south, and longitude $20^{\circ} 10'$ east of London.

Though this famous cape was first discovered by Dias, yet he only went so near it as to observe its situation, bays, and anchorings; but the Portuguese never made any settlement there; nor did the Dutch, who first visited it in the year 1600, immediately discern all the advantages arising from this situation; and they only touched there for many years, in their voyages to and from the East Indies, to traffic for provisions. For this purpose, they went from time to time, in bodies up into the country, and having thrown up a small fort near the harbour, they secured themselves and their purchases in the night-time,

till they had shipped them. The Dutch made another use of the Cape, while things were carried on this way, which was a notable contrivance: every commander going out was provided with a square stone, upon which, at his departure from the Cape, he caused his own name, that of his ship, and the names of his principal officers, to be fairly cut, together with the day he arrived there, and the day he departed. The stone, with such inscriptions, was buried in a certain place without the fort, and under it was put a tin box, sealed up, containing letters from the captain, and others, to the directors of the Dutch East India company, together with such other letters as any person on board thought fit to send into Europe. This stone and box were taken up by the next ship that passed by the Cape, in her return, and by her conveyed to Holland. And whoever considers the situation of the Cape (as a sort of half-way house in the East India voyage), and the satisfaction the company by this means received, from time to time, concerning the fortune and condition of their ships, will acknowledge this a very useful contrivance.

After this manner the Dutch used the Cape till the year 1650, when their fleet anchoring before it for the usual purpose, M. Van Reibeck, a surgeon, belonging to it, had the penetration to discern the still greater advantages which the company might reap from the Cape, by means of a very little cultivation. He observed that the country was plentifully stocked with cattle; that the soil was rich, and capable of generous productions; that the natives were tractable, and the harbour commodious and improveable; and upon the whole, made a good judgment to what a degree the Dutch trade might be secured, and facilitated by means of this situation: in a word, he saw that it was highly adviseable for the Dutch to make a settlement there. Accordingly, he digested his observations, and, on his return to Holland, laid them before the directors of the East India company, who were so well satisfied with them, that, immediately after a grand consultation on the same, they came to a resolution to attempt a settlement at the Cape without loss of time. Hereupon four ships were ordered for the Cape, with all the materials, instruments, artificers, and other hands necessary in such an expedition. Van Riebeck, the surgeon, was appointed admiral, with a commission, on his arrival, to act as governor and commander in chief of the intended settlement; and with power to treat, manage, and act,

act, for the introduction and establishment of the Dutch, in such manner as he should think fit. Van Reibeck arriving safely with those four ships at the Cape, the natives were so captivated with the presents he brought them of brasse, toys, beads, tobacco, brandy, &c. and so charmed with his address, that a treaty was no sooner set on foot than concluded; wherein it was agreed, that, in consideration of such a quantity of certain toys and commodities, to be delivered to the natives, as might cost fifty thousand guilders, the Dutch should have full liberty to settle there. This being immediately performed, the Dutch took possession of the Cape, which, with a great deal of ceremony, was delivered up to them. The traffic of the Dutch with the natives was also, by the same treaty, established on a good and solid foundation, with many considerable privileges and regulations for their commercial interests.

In consequence of these measures, the governor raised a fort, wherein he built dwelling-houses, warehouses, and an hospital for the reception of the sick. To this fort he added proper outworks, to secure himself from any attacks from the Europeans. But, in process of time, settlers flowing abundantly to the Cape, and trade greatly increasing, the then governor, whose name was Bax, took notice, that the company's store-houses which were without the fort, would be soon too small to receive all the company's merchandize at the Cape: he judged, likewise, that there was a necessity for augmenting the garrison, since all the trading nations in Europe saw, and began to envy the Dutch, the advantages they made of the Cape, and that therefore it might be justly apprehended, that one or other of those nations would attempt to wrest it from them. These things he represented to the court of directors, and proposed to them the erecting a new fort in a more advantageous situation. This was accordingly done, and from time to time has been so augmented, that, at this day, it is a very strong and stately building, and provided with all manner of accommodations for a garrison. It covers the harbour roundly, and is of admirable defence towards the country; and the company's storehouses for merchandizes are very large and commodious.

The settlement being firmly established, they increased and multiplied in people to such a degree, that in a few years, being still joined by new settlers from Europe, they began to extend themselves into new colonies along the

coast. At present, they are divided into four principal ones: the first is at the Cape, where are the grand forts and the capital city; the second is the Hellenbogensh; the third the Drakenston; and the fourth the Waverish colony. The Dutch East India company has likewise bought, for the future increase of the people, all that tract of land called Terra de Natal, lying between the Mozambic and the Cape; for which they paid in toys, commodities, and utensils, to the value of thirty thousand guilders; so that the province is now become of great extent.

Eight particular establishments constitute the present government of the Dutch colony at the Cape. These are, a grand council; a court of justice; a petty court of assaults, &c. a court of marriages; a chamber of orphans; an ecclesiastical council; a common-council; and a board of militia; by means of all which, this colony is well regulated and governed.

In the neighbourhood of the Cape are three remarkable hills: the Table Hill is the highest of the three. On the tops are several fine springs, the water as clear as crystal, and of a very delicate taste. Though at a distance no tokens of fertility are discovered on this hill, yet, in ascending it, the eye is surpris'd with the charms of its fruitfulness. The stately trees with which it is adorned, are hardly to be discovered till one is just near them. On this hill, also, between two groves, a silver mine was discovered some years ago. Some ore dug out of it was sent to Holland, but not yielding, it seems, such a quantity of pure silver as to induce the company to think that the produce of the mine would answer the charge of working it, the mine was closed up and neglected: this mine may, probably, be wrought to good profit some years hence. Besides the pleasing harbours on this hill, the beauty, variety, and fragrancy of the flowers that grow in plenty, and adorn its tops and sides, are not to be expressed, says Kolben; and they are more delightful to the eye, and more odoriferous, than any he ever met with in Europe. The other is called Lion Hill, which is separated from the former by a valley, whereon stands a hut for the shelter of two men, posted there by the government, to give notice to the fortress at the Cape of the appearance of any ship making in, of which they give signals to the fort. The last of these is the Wind Hill, which abounds with excellent pasture.

Part of the Hottentots have submitted themselves to the Hollanders, and are, therefore, styled the company's Hottentots. The Dutch send annually about fifty or sixty persons to trade with them, who purchase their cattle, and give them in exchange, arrack, tobacco, hemp, and such garden-seeds, &c. as they have occasion for, by which means a good understanding is preserved.

Several authors, particularly the Dutch, have been profuse in their descriptions of every thing regarding the Hottentots; but it may suffice in general to observe, that they are of a middling stature, with small limbs and active bodies, flat oval faces, large eye-brows, black eyes, and their colour and complexion rather tawny than black. They besmear their bodies with grease and soot; with the latter, perhaps, to appear blacker, and often twist the guts of beasts and fowls about their legs and arms in the manner of bracelets, which some say they occasionally make use of for food. Upon their heads they wear some shells, and on their bodies a mantle of sheep-skin, with the woolly side outwards, and another piece, like an apron, hanging before from the navel. Their huts are very mean, and so is their furniture, consisting only of two or three earthen pots to dress their victuals in, which are usually herbs, flesh, or shell-fish. In every village the eldest is first in order and dignity, his advice, as to what concerns the whole, being chiefly followed, as having most experience. They have neither temples, idols, nor any other peculiar place of worship; they celebrate, indeed, several nocturnal dances, with singing, at the new and full moon; but these are performed near their huts, and seem to be rather pastimes, or merry-meetings, than any thing relating to religious worship. Their weapons are javelins, with which they are very dexterous at hitting a mark; and bows with poisoned arrows, which are said to be mortal on drawing blood. They are so fond of their own country, and the sweets of a vagabond life, that there is no getting the better of their invincible reluctance to adopt the European manners and customs. For this reason, the Dutch missionaries, with all their endeavours, have not been able to convert a single Hottentot. Van der Stel, a governor of the Cape, having procured a Hottentot infant, took care to have him brought up in the principles of the Christian religion, and the manners and customs of Europe. He clothed him richly, had him taught several languages; and the boy's progress perfectly corresponded with the attention bestowed upon it. The

governor, big with expectations from his pupil's capacity, sent him to the Indies with a commissary-general, who employed him usefully in the company's affairs; but, the commissary dying, he returned to the Cape, and, in a visit he made to some of his Hottentot relations a few days after his arrival, took the strange resolution to exchange all his European finery for a sheep's skin. In this new dress he returned to the fort, loaded with a bundle containing the clothes he had thrown off, and presented himself in the following words: "Be so kind, sir, as to take notice, that I for ever renounce this apparel. I likewise for ever renounce the Christian religion. It is my firm resolution to live and die in the religion, manners, and customs of my ancestors. All the favour I ask from you, is to leave me the collar and the hanger I wear; I shall keep them for your sake." These words were scarce out of his mouth, when he took to his heels, and was out of sight, nor did he ever appear among the Europeans again.

Our English seamen who have touched at the Cape, could never be reconciled to the Hottentots, but always considered them as the nastiest and most brutal people in the world. This is chiefly owing to their ill smell, occasioned by their greasing themselves continually; yet this is not a custom peculiar to the Hottentots, being used by most of the Negroes on the coast of Guinea. It is true, that the latter, generally speaking, make use of oil, which is less offensive; but when they cannot get that, like the Hottentots, they content themselves with such grease and kitchen-stuff as they can purchase from the Europeans who trade with them. This custom prevails likewise in the East Indies, particularly on the Malacca coast, but more especially in the islands; as, for instance, at Sumatra, where the natives grease themselves as much, and smell to the full as strong as the Hottentots. The Javanese, likewise, practise the same; and so do the people of the Philippines and of the Spice Islands; but then they commonly make use of cocoa-nut oil, which is far from being disagreeable. In one respect, however, the Hottentots exceed them all; for they are particularly careful to grease and smut their faces, which is what the Indians never do. This custom of anointing is not altogether unknown to the Americans, though, generally speaking, they rather affect painting their bodies, perhaps, from the same cause that the Hottentots and Indians anoint themselves,

selves, in order to defend their naked bodies from the inclemency of the weather.

Terra Dos Fumos is but a small country along the sea-coast, from the mouth of the river Delagoa to that of Rio de Ladroon, or *the River of the Robbers*. The Europeans have no settlement for trade here, and the Caffres, who inhabit this country, have neither towns, villages, nor any settled dwelling.

To the north of the country of the Hottentots, is the land of Mozumbo Aculunga, which has the kingdom of Mataman on the west; the Hottentot country on the south; Monomotapa on the east; and the province of Ohila on the north. Next to this, northwards, lies the province of Ohila. Farther north is the kingdom of Abutua, which is said to be rich in gold mines. Dapper says, that this province, which he calls Toroca, or Toroa, and others Butua, begins to the south of the mountains of the Moon, and extends northwards to the river Magnica, having the river Bravagul on the west. The town of Fatucoa abounds with gold, silver, and precious stones; and there are two gold mines at Boro and Quitici, two hundred leagues distant from Sofala; they are esteemed the richest in the whole country. Going higher up to the north-east, we find the kingdom of Chicova, abounding, travellers say, with silver mines. In regard to these, and several other barbarous nations, it may be observed, that their gold and silver, and precious stones, have no tendency, like arts and commerce, to civilize and give them any taste for the rational enjoyments of life.

S E C T. IV.

Of Guinea and Nigritia, or Negroland,

THE great region known by the name of Guinea, is divided into the two large countries of Upper and Lower Guinea, of which the latter is commonly called Congo. These two together extend above two thousand five hundred miles along the sea-coast. *Division and extent of Guinea.*

The most general division of Upper Guinea is into three parts, viz. Malagueta, Guinea Proper, and Benin; which, together, extend five hundred leagues from east to west. *Upper Guinea.*

1. The country of Malagueta, is generally known under the name of the Grain Coast, from the paradise grain, *Grain Coast.*

or Guinea pepper, called Malagueta in Spanish, which grows here plentifully. This country is divided into the kingdoms of Sherbro, Quoja, and Sanguin, along the coast, and Manou inland. But these are little known, except near the coast. The chief place frequented by the Europeans is Sherbro, the capital of a petty kingdom of the same name. Sherbro river is navigable for canoes a great way up; the chief trade here is in cam-wood. Near the mouth of this river is York Island, on which the English had once a factory, and good fort, now in ruins. There is also another island called Farellons, which abounds with poultry, rice, potatoes, bananas, orange and lemon-trees. About twenty-five leagues distant from the mouth of the river Sherbro, to the south-east, is Cape Monte. It is furnished with numerous villages, and the Negroes on this part of the coast are extremely industrious, particularly in the planting of rice and boiling of salt.

2. The country of Guinea Proper, extends from Cape Palmas to the river Volta, about one hundred and forty leagues along the sea-coast, which bounds it on the south. It has the kingdom of Benin on the east; Gago and Melli on the north; and Malagueta on the west. The Europeans divide it into two parts, the Tooth, and the Gold Coast; the former extends from Cape Palmas to the river Sueira da Costa; and the latter from thence to the river Volta.

*Ivory
Coast.*

The Tooth, or Ivory, or Quaqua Coast, is thus called from the great plenty of elephants teeth traded in here. When the natives come to trade with any ship, they take some water into their hands, and let a few drops of it fall into their eyes, which is a kind of oath, whereby they signify, that they would rather lose their eye-sight than cheat those they trade with. They are no less averse to drunkenness than to fraud; and, though their country produces a prodigious number of palm-trees, yet they drink no palm-wine, but only a certain small liquor which they mix with water. They have manufactures of cotton habits, which are called Quaqua gowns. A fundamental law of the country is, that every one is obliged to continue all his life-time in the condition in which he was born; so that one whose father was a fisherman, for instance, can never become any thing but a fisherman; and so of all other trades and professions.

Gold Coast.

The Gold Coast follows next; but why particularly so called cannot be well accounted for, since other countries
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in Guinea produce gold also. Undoubtedly, all the countries in Guinea abound with gold mines; and though the natives are not artists enough to know where or how to follow a vein, yet they find great quantities of gold in several of their mines, which are also so sacred to them, that they will not permit any European miner either to see their mines, or to search for others. They bring down, however, good store of what they find to the sea-coasts, as an article of their traffic. The natives, near the sea, have another way of finding gold. In the rainy seasons, after a wet night, the sea-shore is covered with people, mostly women, each with a couple of bowls, the largest of which they fill with such sand and earth as are driven down from the mountains by violent floods into the rivers and brooks. This sand and earth they wash with many waters, by often turning the bowl round, till it washes over the brim. The gold, if there be any, sinks to the bottom, by reason of its weight; and thus they continue, till they have washed all the earth and sand away, except two or three spoonfuls of the bottom, which they carefully take out, and lay by in the small bowl, after filling of which, they carry the dregs home, and search it diligently for the gold. Allinee, on this coast, is a country abounding with gold, and formerly a considerable trade was carried on here; but since the devastation made by a neighbouring nation, there is very little trade, in comparison to what there was; and the little gold dust that is brought hither, is either sophisticated, or of very small value. From the Allinee to Cape Apollonia, a great deal of land has been cleared and sown with Indian corn. The inhabitants here of Axim, a town of some note, are generally pretty opulent, carrying on a great trade with the Europeans in gold, which they chiefly vend to the English or Dutch. The natives industriously employ themselves in trade, fishing, or agriculture. The latter is chiefly exercised in the article of rice, which grows here above all other places, in an incredible abundance, and is transported hence to all parts of the Gold Coast. The returns are in millet, yams, potatoes, and palm-oil, all which are very scarce here; for the soil is generally moist, and, though fit to produce rice, and some fruit-trees, does not kindly yield other fruits. The country throughout the Gold Coast abounds in hills, all adorned with extraordinary high and beautiful trees. The vallies between the hills are wide and extensive, and fit for the planting of all sorts of fruits; and if they were as well cultivated

cultivated as watered, would supply half the coast with provisions. The earth produces in great abundance very good rice, the richest sort of millet, the grain of which is red; yams, potatoes, and other roots, all good in their kind; nor is the soil deficient in fruit-trees. The sugar-canes grow here in greater plenty, and larger, than any where else on the coast of Guinea. Palm-wine and oil are very good, and in great plenty; the country also abounds in all sorts of tame and wild beasts.

*Slave
Coast.*

3. The country of Benin comprehends the Slave Coast, having Guinea Proper, or, more particularly, the Gold Coast on the west; Gago, Brafera, with the desert of Seth, on the north; Mujaac and Makoko on the east; and part of Congo, with the Ethiopic Ocean, on the south. It is commonly divided into three parts, viz. Whydah and Ardah, containing the Slave Coast, and Benin Proper.

Whydah, so called by the English, is called Juda by the French, and Fida by the Dutch. It is bounded on the west by the river Volta; on the south it has the gulf of Guinea; on the east, the kingdom of Ardah; and on the north, the kingdom of Dahomy. Whydah is allowed to be a very delightful country. The number and variety of tall and beautiful trees seem as if planted in fine groves for ornament. The lands were in general well cultivated, till the king of Dahomy conquered it. Before this time, the natives were so industrious, that few places thought fertile escaped cultivation; and they were so anxious in that particular, that, the day after they had reaped, they always sowed again, without allowing the land time for rest. The English African company have a fort here, wherein are mounted several pieces of cannon; and, at a little distance, there is also a French fort. Sabee, the capital town of Whydah, is about four miles distant from the French fort, towards the north: but it was reduced to ashes by the king of Dahomy. The town was very populous, and had daily markets, wherein many sorts of European, as well as African commodities, were exhibited to public sale, with a great variety of provisions. Near the European factories was a spacious place, where grew a parcel of fine, tall, shady trees, under which the English, French, and Portuguese governors, factors, and sea-captains, walked, and transacted business every day as on an exchange. All these places were reduced to ashes by the king of Dahomy's army. Adjoining to the kingdom of Whydah are several small royalties, as Coto, Little
and

and Great; Popo, and Quahoe, situate on the Slave Coast. At Coto their land is flat, sandy, and barren; but they have the palm and wild cacao-trees in tolerable plenty. Their trade is chiefly in slaves and fish. Quahoe abounds with gold, which the inhabitants carry through Aquamboe to Acra.

Dahomy country is situated to the north of the Slave Coast, and extends greatly inland. Its boundaries on the west, north; and east, are unknown. This country is healthy, lying high, and being refreshed with cool breezes. The trade of the natives is chiefly in slaves and some gold.

Benin Proper has part of the gulf of Guinea and the Slave Coast, or Ludra, on the west; part of Gago and Brafera on the north; Mujac and Makoko on the east; and Congo on the south. Its extent, from west to east, is about six hundred miles; but from south to north remains unascertained. The country abounds with wild beasts, as elephants, tygers, leopards, boars; and with game, as harts, hares, partridges, pigeons, turtle-doves: the soil produces great variety of trees and plants, as orange, lemon, and especially cotton-trees; pepper, but not in such quantities as in the East Indies. The natives are pretty well civilized, and, if humoured in their ceremonious way of traffic, may be managed to good advantage. They are very expert in business, though tedious; which, however, they manage with so much civility, that none can well be angry. They seem very obliging to each other; but this is only external grimace, for they repose little confidence in their countrymen. They are jealously prudent, and very reserved, especially in the management of their trade, which they conduct with the utmost secrecy, lest they should be represented as great traders to their governors; who, upon such discovery, would certainly accuse them of some crime or other, in order to possess themselves, though ever so unjustly, of their effects. Those, therefore, who have no share of the government, always pretend to be poorer than they really are, to escape the rapacious hands of those in authority. This obliges them to a cunning sort of civility, to avoid accusers; and the European dealers, who will conceal their transactions with them, may do business to great profit. Such as have any thing of stock, apply themselves to merchandize. Very few of the commonalty among the males are industrious, laying the burden of labour on their wives and slaves, whether it be tilling of ground, spinning of cotton, weaving

weaving of cloth, or any other handicraft employ; yet there are but few manual arts, besides weaving, practised or understood amongst them: the chief workmen are smiths, carpenters, or leather-dressers; but all their workmanship is but mean, for want of proper instruction. Benin, which gives name to the empire, and is the king's residence, is situate about sixty miles from Agatton, a town at the entrance of the river Formosa, near the sea. Continual markets are kept in this city of cattle, cotton, elephant's teeth, and European wares. Those who attend the court are rich, but do not concern themselves with trade, agriculture, or any thing else, leaving all their affairs to their wives, who go to all the circumjacent villages, to trade in all sorts of merchandizes, and are obliged to bring the greatest part of their gains to their husbands. All the male slaves here are foreigners, for the inhabitants cannot be sold for slaves, and only bear the name of the king's slaves; nor is it allowed to export any male slaves that are sold in this country, but females may be dealt with at every one's pleasure.

Awerri is about twenty leagues from Benin to the south, and is the capital of the kingdom of the same name, whose king is independent of the king of Benin.

Areba, a common trading place for the Europeans, is situate above fifty miles higher up than the mouth of the river Formosa. So far ships may conveniently come in their passage, sailing by a great variety of the branches of that river, besides creeks. Here formerly were two factories, one of which belonged to the English, the other to the Dutch; but the English have now no fort or factory, having traded here but very little for several years past.

Agatton has several circumjacent villages, whose inhabitants resort to it at every considerable market, which is held for five days.

At Cape Formosa the trade consists in elephant's teeth, wax, and honey.

*Lower
Guinea.*

Congo, or Lower Guinea, has Upper Guinea, or the kingdom of Benin, on the north; the Ethiopic Ocean on the west; the kingdom of Mataman, reckoned part of Casfraria, on the south; but its boundaries east and north-east are not well known. The extent of this country from Cape Lopo, in the first degree of south latitude, to Cape Negro, 23 deg. 30 min. of the same latitude, is about 16 deg. 30 min. or about nine hundred and ninety English miles; how far it extends eastward is not known. The country is watered with many rivers, and would be
very

very fruitful, if better cultivated; but nothing can conquer the laziness of the Negroes, who, for the most part, chuse rather to live in want, than give themselves the trouble to get a comfortable livelihood. The mountains abound with the most precious metals, as gold, silver, and copper; but none but the iron mines are worked, chiefly for the purpose of making arms. Congo is commonly divided into Loango, Congo Proper, Angola, and Benguela. Angola seems to be under the best regulation, being governed, especially a good part of the coast, by the Portuguese. The number of slaves here is prodigious; the Portuguese Jesuits alone, who perform the office of curates in the country, are said to have upwards of twelve thousand slaves at Loango, which is the usual residence of the Roman Catholic bishop. However, these slaves are not found so serviceable as from other parts of Guinea, being naturally addicted to laziness, which seldom or ever can be conquered by any sort of treatment. The inland parts of Benguela are little known; but along the sea-coast are several places with which the Europeans are better acquainted, particularly the Portuguese, who are here pretty numerous, and carry on a good trade in fine linen and cotton cloths, gum, gunpowder, slaves, some gold, and ivory.

The Portuguese being the first that discovered the coast of Africa, they built one fort on the island of Arguin, on the north coast; another called St. George del Mina, on the Gold Coast; and a third at a place called Loango St. Paul's, on the coast of Angola, to the southward of the equinoctial line. By virtue of these possessions, they not only claimed, and for many years enjoyed, the right in and to all the said lands and countries, but likewise seized and confiscated the ships of all nations, as often as they found any of them trading on any part of the said coast.

*Origin and
state of the
English
trade on
the coast of
Africa.*

About the latter end of the reign of king Edward VI. some London merchants fitted out the first English ships that ever traded to Guinea; and in the reign of queen Mary, and for the first ten or twelve years of queen Elizabeth, sundry other private ships were fitted out for the same parts; but the English not having as yet any settlements or plantations in the West Indies, and consequently no occasion for Negroes, such ships traded only for gold, elephants teeth, and malaguetta; and all such voyages were undertaken and performed at the hazard of losing the

the ships and cargoes, if they fell into the hands of the Portuguese, without the least ground to hope for any redress or satisfaction for the same.

Queen Elizabeth, in the 30th year of her reign, being then at war with Spain and Portugal, erected a company for the better discovering and carrying on a trade from the northernmost part of the river Senegal, and from and within that river, all along that coast, unto the southernmost part of the river Gambia, and within the same; and gave and granted unto them the whole and sole trade in, to, and from the said river and countries, for a certain term of years; with prohibition to all others her subjects to trade to the same places, on pain of forfeiture of ships and goods: and these were the first English merchants that ever traded to the coast of Guinea, by and under the authority of the crown of England.

In the reigns of the kings James and Charles I. and during the time of the usurpation, several persons were encouraged by public authority, to trade to other parts of Africa, and to take such measures for the better carrying on and improving the same, as they should judge most proper. In pursuance whereof, they built one fort at a place called Cormantine, on the Gold Coast, and another on the river Gambia, on the north coast; and these were the only places of any consequence which the English were in possession of at the Restoration.

King Charles II. soon after his restoration, being made acquainted with the dangerous and precarious state and condition to which the trade of his subjects in those parts was reduced; and having likewise received many complaints touching the interruptions given to, and depredations committed upon, the ships of this nation, by the Dutch West India company on the coast of Africa, it became necessary to consider not only of a proper method for protecting and securing the said trade for the future, but likewise how and in what manner reparation might be obtained for such damages and depredations. The result was the institution of the company of Royal Adventurers of England trading into Africa, by letters patent under the great seal of England, bearing date the 10th of January, 1662. But this company, though they kept their footing in Africa, yet, by reason of the consequences of the wars with the Dutch, which the nation was then obliged to engage in, they had so many difficulties to struggle with, that they consented to surrender their charter to the crown. This was in consideration of a certain sum of money, to be paid

paid unto them by another new company, then intended to be established. The terms of the surrender being accepted, his majesty established and incorporated a new Royal African company, by his letters patent under the great seal of England, bearing date the 27th of September, 1672; and granted unto them, all and singular, the lands, countries, havens, roads, rivers, and other places in Africa, from the port of Sallee, in South Barbary, to the Cape of Good Hope, for and during the term of one thousand years; with the sole and entire trade into these countries; and a prohibition to all his other subjects to visit or frequent the same, without the licence and consent of the said company: and also, with such other powers and privileges, as were then judged proper and necessary, for enabling and encouraging them to undertake so hazardous and chargeable a work.

This new company met with all possible opposition from the French and Dutch, and sustained particularly several considerable losses by means of the wars with the French in the reign of king William III. infomuch that the parliament in 1697, taking the trade to Africa into their consideration, thought fit, as a farther means of enlarging and improving the same, to lay it open to all his majesty's subjects for thirteen years; and in regard that the Royal African company of England had been at the charge of building and maintaining a considerable number of forts and castles on the said coast, which the parliament likewise judged necessary to be kept up and maintained in future, for the preservation and better carrying on the said trade, they were farther pleased to impose a duty of ten per cent. ad valorem, on all goods and merchandize exported to Africa, during the said term, to be answered and paid to the said company for enabling them to keep and maintain their forts and castles.

This act continued in force from the 24th of June, 1698, to the 24th of June, 1712; in which time the charges the company were at in maintaining their forts and castles, amounted, at a medium, to about twenty thousand pounds per annum, and in fourteen years, to two hundred and eighty thousand pounds in the whole. The duty which the separate traders paid in the same time amounted, in the whole, to seventy-three thousand seven hundred and eighty-five pounds ten shillings and six pence halfpenny, and no more; and ten per cent. upon the

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company's

company's own exports for the same time, amounted to the sum of thirty-six thousand three hundred and eighty-seven pounds thirteen shillings and one penny halfpenny. From whence it appears, that, even while that act continued in force, the total of the ten per cent. duty came very much short of half the charges and expences which the company were at in keeping and maintaining their forts and castles. Under these difficulties, and by the extravagant rise in the prices of Negroes at Anamaboe, and other places on the coast, and by the decay of the gold trade which ensued thereupon, the proprietors of the company were for many years obliged either to raise sundry great sums of money for maintaining their forts and castles, without receiving any profit from the trade in return for the same; or to run the risk not only of losing all the money which they had, from time to time, raised and expended for supporting their own property, but of becoming accessaries to the entire loss of the trade of Africa, and consequently, by relinquishing and abandoning their forts and castles, to be seized and possessed by such foreign nations as were long watching for an opportunity to get them into their hands. This being the case with regard to the company, and it being the sense of the nation, that the trade to Africa should continue free and open to all his majesty's subjects, the only thing that remained to be considered was, whether or no forts and castles were necessary to be kept up and maintained for the preservation of the said trade to this kingdom; and if they were necessary for that purpose, who, upon the footing of a trade still free and open, ought in justice and reason to bear and defray the charges of them.

As there was no reason for the company's being obliged to maintain the forts and castles at their own sole cost and charge, they petitioned the parliament, in 1730, and obtained ten thousand pounds, to enable them to support their forts and settlements. The sum was annually continued to them, except two or three years interruption, till the last change made in the state of this company, by an act of parliament of the year 1751. By this act the company were divested of their charter, and after the 10th of April, 1752, ceased to be a corporation, and their forts, castles, and all other their possessions in Africa, were vested in a new company of merchants; and, in consequence of the trade to Africa being, by virtue of the said act, and that also of the 23d of king George II. made free and open

open to all his majesty's subjects, the parliament allow this company ten thousand pounds per annum, for the support of the forts and castles, for the public service.

The African trade, as may be known from the premises, consists of but three capital articles: slaves, ivory, and gold; a very beneficial and advantageous commerce, especially as it was once carried on, when these were all purchased at low rates from the Negroes; and even those low rates paid in trifles and toys, such as knives, scissars, kettles, glass-beads, and cowries, things of little value; but even this part of the trade is greatly declined in profit, since by the strife and envy among the traders, particularly between our late Royal African company and the separate traders, we have had the folly to instruct the Negroes in the value of their own goods, and of the cheapness of ours; endeavouring to supplant one another, by underselling and overbidding, by which we have taught the Negroes to supplant both, by holding up the price of their own productions, and running down the rates of what we carry them for sale. Thus that gainful commerce, once superior to all the trades in the world, which carried out the meanest of all exportations, and brought home the richest, is sinking daily, and we are sometimes said to buy even the gold too dear. But all this while there is not the least use made of the land; the fruitful soil lies waste; a vast extended country, pleasant vallies, the banks of charming rivers, spacious plains, capable of improvement and cultivation to infinite advantage, remain barren and untouched. But there are now some hopes that these advantages will be no longer neglected, by the opening to a more extensive commerce that has been made for us in the definitive treaty of peace 1763, and particularly by the cession of Senegal, of which, with the country of Nigritia it belongs to, we are now going to give some account.

Nigritia, or Negroland, a country in Africa, lies between eighteen degrees west, and fifteen degrees east longitude; and between ten and twenty degrees of north latitude, the great river Niger running through it from east to west. It is bounded by Zaara, or the desert, on the north, by unknown countries on the east, by Guinea on the south, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. The Europeans have several settlements on the branches of the river Niger, especially near their mouths. A great many nations inhabit the banks of the Niger, of different languages,

guages, and independent on each other. The country is fruitful, abounding in rice, Guinea grain, and Indian corn, where it is cultivated; cattle are not wanting; but there is abundance of cocoa-nuts, plantains, pulse, palm-trees, and tropical fruits.

*Niger and
Sanaga
rivers.*

The Niger and Sanaga rivers are esteemed by the most accurate geographers to be the same, or at least the Sanaga to be a part of the Niger. Europeans have been able to trace the main river but part of the way, beyond which they know nothing of its course, but what is learned from the Mandingo Negroes, who, among all the blacks, are the most addicted to travelling and traffic, but are neither expert enough in their observations, nor have gone far enough to know any thing of its real source, since they place it no higher, according to Labat, than the lake Maberia, in the kingdom of Tombut, which is little more than half way to that of the Nile. Others, with Labat, have stretched its course back eastward, to the lake Bournow, which lies under the 18th degree of latitude, and 19th of east longitude, and fix its spring-head there; it being difficult to trace it farther, on account of the dangers of such an attempt from the supposed barrenness of the country, but rather from the savage disposition of the inhabitants, who live beyond it; and who can never be civilized till the Europeans take wise and honest measures for that purpose. It is certain, however, that the Niger or Sanaga is a very large and considerable river, and of very great extent in its course, even though we should trace its spring-head no farther than the lake Bournow. But if we suppose it to spring from the same head with the Nile, it will then cross almost the whole country of Africa where it is widest, and will have a course of near fifty degrees from east to west, exclusive of its windings. The entrance into it is narrow and somewhat difficult, by reason of its immoveable bar and sandy shoals, as well as the several islands that are at the mouth of it, and the several canals and marshes that clog it: but after sailing up eight or ten leagues, it is found broad and deep, and fit to carry large vessels; and, except about five or six leagues on each side above the mouth, which is a sandy and barren ground, in all the rest, as far as the lake Maberia, the banks are covered with stately fruit-trees and villages, and the country well watered and very fertile for a great way; for, like the Nile, it overflows it for many leagues, and enriches the land to a great degree, and would do so still more, if the inhabitants were as expert

and industrious in making all the advantages they could of it; but this is not the case, though the people on both sides live as near to it as they can, and feed great herds of cattle, and sow large and small millet in great quantities, and with great increase.

As the Niger receives many considerable rivers in its course, which swell it high enough to be able at all times to carry vessels of forty or fifty tons, so it splits itself into several branches, which, uniting again, form very large and fertile islands, well filled with towns, villages, and inhabitants.

Towards the coast, the island of Senegal is situated in *Island of Senegal.* the river Sanaga, 16 degrees 15 min. north latitude, about fifteen miles from its mouth. It is about one mile and a quarter in length, from north to south; and almost half a mile in breadth, from east to west. It is composed of a bed of loose sand, productive of nothing but what is forced with art and the richest manure; notwithstanding which, it contains three thousand inhabitants, whose principal food is fish and maize. This sort of corn grows in great plenty, almost all over the whole country. It may seem surprising, that a part of the world, so very unhealthy as this, should yet be so populous; but the wonder will cease when we come to understand, that the greatest pride among the men consists in the number of their wives; so that every one takes as many as he is able to maintain; some six, others eight, and others twelve at a time.

To the north-east, east, and south-east of this island, *Face of the adjacent country.* lies a prodigious large and low country, covered with marshes and woods. Much the greatest part of it is utterly unknown to us. It is through this country that the large branches of the Niger empty themselves into the sea, particularly the Sanaga, Gambia, and Sherbro. During the rainy months, which begin in July, and continue till October, they lay the whole flat country under water; and, indeed, the very sudden rise of these rivers is incredible to persons who have never been within the tropics, and are unacquainted with the violent rains that fall there. At Galam, nine hundred miles from the mouth of the river Sanaga, the waters rise a hundred and fifty feet perpendicular from the bed of the river. At the island of Senegal, the river rises gradually during the rainy season, above twenty feet perpendicular over part of that flat coast, which, of itself alone, so freshens the water, that ships lying at anchor at the distance of three leagues from its mouth,

mouth, generally make use of it, and fill their water there for the voyage home. When the rains are at an end, which usually happens in October, the intense heat of the sun soon dries up those waters which lie on the higher parts, and the remainder form lakes of stagnated waters, in which are found all sorts of dead animals. These waters every day decrease, till at last they are quite exhaled, and then the effluvia that arise are almost insupportable. At this season the winds blow so very hot from off the land, that they may well be compared to the heat proceeding from the mouth of an oven, and they bring with them a smell that is quite intolerable. Their effects upon wolves, tigers, lions, and other wild beasts, are such, that they are seen to resort to the river, keeping their body under water, and only their snout above it, for the advantage of breathing. The birds likewise are seen to soar to an immense height, and to fly a great way over the sea, where they continue till the wind changes and comes from the west.

Gum Senega.

One of the most considerable articles of commerce, and the chief inducement to Europeans for settling here, is the gum senega, so denominated from the river Senegal, the forests bordering upon that river abounding with this gum. It greatly resembles the gum arabic, but its granules are usually larger, of an oval form, the surface very rough, and the inner substance bright where broken. It is very hard, but not tough, considerably heavy, and of an extremely fine and even texture. When broke the colour is frequently of a pale brown, but, like gum arabic, sometimes yellowish, reddish, or whitish. Dyers and other artificers consume the greatest quantities of this gum. The French, when they were in possession of this part of the African coast, from Cape Blanco to the river Gambia, extending along the shore about four hundred miles, found the gum senega so useful in their silk and linen manufactures, that they engrossed the whole trade of it to themselves, and occasionally prohibited its exportation. And hence it is that this country, quite unhealthy as it is, and those roads so dangerous for shipping, have nevertheless been eagerly contended for by the English, French, Dutch, and Portuguese. All strove to settle here in their turns, being the only place for the gum trade, by being masters of the Senegal rivers; a trade which seems a light matter in itself, but is, in effect, very considerable, whether we regard the price the natives sell the gum for, which is very moderate,

moderate, or, lastly, the quantity of European merchandizes it takes off ready wrought, the vent of which makes manufactures spread, money circulate, and so finds work for abundance of hands, which is the main end of commerce.

Before we close our account of this part of Africa, it will not be amiss to take notice of a tree of a new genus, which grows in Senegal, which may be justly reputed the largest vegetable production in nature, and therefore, by its great magnitude, a more singular and remarkable phenomenon than all the histories of botany, or perhaps of the world have yet produced.

The real name of this tree is baobab; the Oualofs, natives of the country, call it goui, and its fruit boui; and the French know it by the name of calabassier, or calabash-tree, and call its fruit pain de sînge, or *monkies bread*. The baobab cannot grow out of a very hot climate; it delights in a sandy and moist soil, especially if this soil is free from stones that might hurt its roots; for the least scratch they receive is soon followed by a canker communicating itself to the trunk of the tree, and causing it infallibly to perish.

Description of the baobab.

The trunk of this singular tree is not very high: M. Adanson (who had lately communicated his observations on the baobab to the French¹ academicians) saw hardly any exceeding twelve or fifteen feet, from the roots to the branches; but he had seen several seventy-five and seventy-eight feet round, that is, from twenty-five to twenty-seven feet in diameter. The first branches extends almost horizontally; and being very thick and about sixty feet in length, their own weight bends down their extremities to the ground; the center branches rise perpendicularly, but so as to make a shelving, and the tree being thus regularly rounded, its trunk is absolutely hidden, and it appears as an hemispherical mass of verdure, of about a hundred and twenty, a hundred and thirty, or a hundred and forty feet in diameter.

The roots of the baobab are answerable to its size in all respects; to the branches above, there is a correspondent number of radical branches below. That of the middle forms a pivot that strikes very deep into the earth, but the rest spread towards the surface. M. Adanson had seen one laid open by a current of water, in the extent of upwards a hundred and ten feet; and it was easy to judge

¹ Printed in their Memoirs for the year 1761.

by its bulk, that what still remained under ground was at least forty or fifty feet long; and yet this tree, compared with others, was but of middling bulk.

The bark of the trunk is greyish, smooth, and, as it were, unctuous to the touch; stripping it off, the inside appears of a green, pricked with red; the thickness is about eight or nine lines. The bark of the younger branches is green and thinly disseminated with hairs: the wood of the tree is very soft and white.

The leaves are about five inches long and two broad, and pointed at both extremities, pretty thick, of a sprightly green on the upper side, and pale underneath; and adhering three, five, or seven, but most commonly seven, in the manner of a fan, on a common pedicle, much like those of the chefnut-tree; they only grow on the young branches, whereon the pedicles are alternately placed. The blossoms or flowers are in proportion to the tree, not yielding in magnitude to the largest we know of. They form, when still in the bud, a globe of about three inches diameter, and when blown are four inches long and six broad. After the falling of the petals and the stamina, the ovarium, as it ripens, becomes an oblong fruit, pointed at both extremities, fifteen or eighteen feet long, and five or six broad, clothed with a kind of greenish down, under which is found a ligneous, hard, almost black rind or peel, and marked with twelve or fourteen furrows, dividing it lengthwise into ribs. This fruit hangs from the tree by a pedicle of about two feet in length, and contains a kind of pulp or whitish substance, spongy, and full of sourish water. The pulp seems to make but one mass, when the fruit is new; but, in drying, shrinks and divides of itself into a great number of bodies, with several facets, each containing a brown shining seed, nearly of the figure of a kidney-bean, five lines in length and three in breadth; and the pulp that surrounds them is easily reduced into a powder, brought hither from the Levant, and known for a long time by the very improper name of *terra sigillata* of Lemnos, because indeed the Mandingues carry it to the Arabs, who afterwards distribute it in Egypt, and through all the eastern parts of the Mediterranean. Prosper Alpinus was very sensible that this powder was vegetable; but certainly one might not be aware of seeking in Senegal, a drug that is imported from the Archipelago.

M. Adanson believes that the baobab may be naturally classed with the malvaceous plants that have but one calix.

This

This tree cannot be transplanted neither when it begins to rise, nor when it is ten years old, as its root would almost infallibly perish. The best plant is that which is from six months to two years old; branches sometimes taken from a slip, but they frequently fail; and the progress even of those that do is always slower than that of the plant rising from the seed. Besides the canies that attacks the trunk of the tree when its roots are hurt, it is also subject to another malady, more rare indeed, but not less fatal to it. This is a kind of mouldiness that gets into the whole ligneous body, and which, without changing the texture of its fibres, softens it to the degree of its having no more consistence than the ordinary pith of trees; then it becomes incapable of resisting the ordinary blasts of wind, and this monstrous trunk is broke down by the least storm. M. Adanson had seen one in this condition; it was inhabited by a great number of the grubs of beetles and chafers: they did not, however, seem as if they had contributed to the distempered state of the tree; but their eggs might have been introduced into the wood on growing soft, the same way as an infinity of insects introduce their eggs into the willow-tree, when it undergoes a similar state of softness, though they do not attack it when it is sound.

The real country of the baobab is Africa, and particularly the western coast of that part which extends from the Niger to the kingdom of Benin. It is not found in the catalogues of the Asiatic plants, nor in those of America; yet might be actually in some of the climates of those two parts of the world, which resemble the part of Africa that produces it; but the tree does not grow there spontaneously. The Negroe slaves yearly transported from Africa into the American colonies, fail not to carry with them a little bundle of seeds, which they presume will be of service to them, and among these are always some seed of the baobab. It is probably to this transportation that are or will be owing the baobabs found there, such as that M. de Chanvallon, a correspondent of the French academy, says he had seen at Martinico, and which indeed was but young. They may perhaps be naturalized to the climate, but this will not be their first origin, and none for a long time will be seen equal in magnitude to those of the coast of Africa; for though a very tender wood, they take up a great time in growing to this enormous bulk.

M. Adanson has carefully collected all the facts he believed could give him any insight in regard to this article;

he had seen two of these trees in one of the Magellan isles, on the bark of which were cut European names and dates, whereof some were later than 1600, others were as far back as 1555, and had been probably the work of those who accompanied Thevenot in his voyage to the Terra Australis; for, he says himself, he had seen baobabs in that place; others, in fine, appear prior to 1500; but these might be questioned, the characters of the names being about six inches high, and the names taking up two feet in length, that is, somewhat less than the eighth part of the circumference of the tree. Supposing even that these characters had been cut in the early youth of the tree, it would follow that, if in two hundred years it grew six feet in diameter, it would require upwards of eight centuries to be twenty-five feet in diameter, supposing it always grew equally; but this supposition can hardly be considered as true; for M. Adanson observed that the growth of this tree, very rapid in the first years succeeding its birth, diminishes afterwards very considerably; and though the proportion of this diminution is not well known, it might be thought, he fancies, with good reason, that the latter growth of the baobab proceeds with an extreme slowness, and that such of those trees which have arrived at the above mentioned bulk might have first appeared out of the earth not long after the time of the universal deluge; but what is very deserving of notice is, that those raised elsewhere carefully, pursuant to the temperature of their climate, do not receive at most but the fifth part of the increase they have at Senegal in the same time; an observation which should prove, if it was possible to doubt of it, that artificial heat, in regard to exotics, can be but a very imperfect substitute to that which they experience in their natural climate.

The baobab, as all the other plants of the malvaceous tribe, has an emollient virtue, capable of maintaining in the body an abundant transpiration, and of opposing the too great heat of the blood. The Negroes dry its leaves in the shade, and reduce them into a powder they call lalo, which they mix with their aliments, not for giving them a relish, for the lalo has scarce any taste, but for obtaining the just mentioned effect. M. Adanson himself experienced the same virtue; and the decoction of these leaves preserved him and a French officer, who confined himself to this regimen, from the heat of urine and hot fevers, which usually attack foreigners at Senegal during the month of September, and which raged still more furiously

riously in 1751, than they had for several years past. The fresh or newly gathered fruit of this tree is not less useful than its leaves; its pulp is eaten, which is subacid and agreeable enough, and in mixing its juice with water and a little sugar, a liquor is made, attended with the best effects in all hot affections, and in putrid or pestilential fevers; lastly, when the fruit is spoiled, the Negroes make an excellent soap of it, by burning it, and mixing its ashes with the oil of the palm-tree that begins to be rancid.

The Negroes make still a very singular use of this monstrous tree. We have said that it was subject to a caries, which often hollows its trunk; they enlarge those cavities, and make a sort of chambers, where they hang the dead bodies of those they are not willing to grant the honours of burial to; those bodies dry there perfectly, and become real mummies, without any other preparation. The greatest number of the bodies so dried is of the Guiriots: these people may be compared to the ancient bards and jugglers, so famous among our ancestors. They are poets and musicians, and have a kind of inspection over feasts and dances. Their number is always pretty considerable at the courts of the Negroe kings, whom they divert and flatter to an extravagant degree in their poetical compositions. This kind of superiority of talents makes them dreaded by the Negroes during their life; they attribute it to something supernatural; but instead of making as the ancient Greeks, their poets the children of the Gods, they regard them, on the contrary, as forcerers and ministers of the devil, and believe that in that quality they should draw down malediction on the earth, or even on the waters which might receive their bodies; it is therefore that they hide and dry them in the hollow trunks of the baobab.

Homer relates, that Ulysses had made for himself at Ithaca, a complete bedstead of the trunk of an olive-tree, supported on its roots, about which he had afterwards built a chamber. If this prince had in the precinct of his palace a baobab-tree, he might have extended the singularity still farther, and procured himself a chamber and all its furniture cut in the same piece of wood.

The baobab was never described properly, either as to leaves, fruit, or flowers, before M. Adanson; and as Senegal is now one of our possessions on the coast of Africa, the produce of this tree may in a great measure become an important object of our commerce.

S E C T. V.

Of Barbary, Biledulgerid, Zaara or the Desert, and the African Islands.

*Boundaries
and extent
of Barbary.*

THE great tract of Barbary, in general, is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean sea, which divides it from Europe; on the east, by Egypt; on the south, by Zaara, or the Desert; and on the west by the Atlantic, or Western Ocean. Its utmost extent from east to west, that is, from Cape None, on the most western coast of Morocco, to the confines of Egypt, is almost thirty-seven degrees, that is, from 10 to 26 $\frac{1}{2}$ deg. of eastern longitude, or about two thousand two hundred miles. As for its breadth from north to south it is very unequal; in some parts not above six or seven degrees, and where widest, as from Cape None to Tangier, not above ten degrees; but we must observe, that most geographers have given it a much greater extent both ways; some of them as far as four thousand miles in length and twelve hundred in breadth; which can only be meant by including the creeks and windings, which are too precarious and unknown to be depended upon.

*Soil, produce, commodities,
&c.*

Barbary is, next to Egypt, the most fruitful, trading, and populous part of Africa. The soil abounds with plenty and variety of grain and fruits, especially citrons, oranges, dates, figs, olives, grapes, pomegranates, and almonds; in all which the inhabitants drive a considerable trade, as well as in coral, Morocco leather, Barbary horses, and other commodities. The air is temperate, though hot, being refreshed by constant breezes from the Mediterranean.

*History of
the states
on the coast
of Barbary.*

The coast of Barbary was probably first planted by the Egyptians. The Phœnicians afterwards sent colonies thither, and built Utica and Carthage. The Carthaginians soon became powerful and wealthy by trade; and finding the country divided into a great many little kingdoms and states, either subdued or made the princes on that coast their tributaries, who being weary of their yoke, were glad of the opportunity of assisting the Romans in subduing Carthage. The Romans remained sovereigns of the coast of Barbary, until the Vandals, in the fifth century, reduced it under their dominion.

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The Roman, or rather the Grecian emperors, having some time after recovered the coast of Barbary from the Vandals, it remained under their dominion till the Saracen caliphs, the successors of Mohammed, made an entire conquest of all the north of Africa in the seventh century, and divided the country among their chiefs, of whom the sovereign of Morocco was the most considerable, possessing the north-west part of that country, which, in the Roman division obtained the name of Mauritania Tingitana, from Tingis, or Tangir, the capital, and is now styled the empire of Morocco, comprehending the kingdoms or provinces of Fez and Morocco. The emperors of these territories are almost always at war with the Spaniards and Portuguese. In the eighth century their ancestors made a conquest of the greatest part of Spain; but after the loss of Granada, which happened about the year 1492, they were dispossessed of this country; and Ferdinand and Isabella, who were then upon the throne of Spain, obliged them to renounce their religion, or transport themselves to the coast of Africa. Those who made choice of the alternative of going into exile, to revenge themselves on the Spaniards, and supply their necessities, confederated with the Mohammedan princes on the coast of Barbary, and, having fitted out little fleets of cruising vessels, took all the Spanish merchant ships they met with at sea, and being well acquainted with the country, landed in Spain, and brought away multitudes of Spaniards, and made slaves of them. The Spaniards hereupon assembled a fleet of men of war, invaded Barbary, and having taken Oran, and many other places on the coast of Algier, were in a fair way of making an entire conquest of that country. In this distress the African princes applied to that famous Turkish rover, Barbarossa, desiring his assistance against the Christians. He very readily complied with their request, but had no sooner repulsed their enemies, than he usurped the government of Algiers, and treated the people who called him in as slaves; as his brother Heyradin Barbarossa afterwards did the people of Tunis; and a third obtained the government of Tripoli by the like means. In these usurpations they were supported by the grand signior, who claimed the sovereignty of the whole coast, and for some time they were esteemed the subjects of Turkey, and governed by Turkish bashas or viceroys; but each of these states, or rather the military men, at length took upon them to elect a sovereign out of their own body, and rendered

dered themselves independent of the Turkish empire. The grand signior has not now so much as a basha or officer at Algiers; but the dey acts as an absolute prince, and is only liable to be deposed by the soldiery that advanced him. At Tunis and Tripoli he has still bashas, who are some check upon the deys, and have a small tribute paid them. All of them, however, in case of emergency, claim the protection of the Ottoman court, and they still continue to prey upon the Spaniards, having never been at peace with them since the loss of Granada. They make prize also of all other Christian ships that have Spanish goods or passengers on board, and, indeed, of all others that are not at peace with them. The Turks of Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, are an abandoned race, consisting of pirates, banditti, and the very refuse of Turkey, who have been forced to leave their several countries to avoid the punishment of their crimes.

*Morocco
empire.*

The empire of Morocco, the most considerable on this coasts, is bounded by the Mediterranean sea on the north; by the river Fulvia, which divides it from Algier, on the east; by Biledulgerid on the south; and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west; being about five hundred miles long and two hundred broad. It is a fine country, consisting of mountains and vast extended plains, none of them unfruitful; of the mountains, those of Atlas are the chief, extending from Algier in the east to the ocean in the west, which from them has obtained the name of the Atlantic Ocean. Fez, the capital, so called from the kingdom of the same name, is computed to have about three hundred thousand inhabitants. The houses, as well as streets, swarm with men of all professions, and with merchants of all sorts, this place being esteemed the general magazine of Barbary, whither all European goods are brought and exchanged, and sent into the other provinces, to be exchanged for those of the country. The Jews, who are here above five thousand, are the chief brokers, especially between the Christians and Mohammedans. The emperor has a palace at Fez, but his chief residence is at Mequinez, about thirty miles west of Fez, situate in a much more desirable country, surrounded by fine parks and olive-grounds, and containing much about the same number of inhabitants as Fez. There are no ships of war in this empire, except some small piratical vessels, commonly called Sallee rovers, which are crowded with men, and sometimes take great prizes. As for merchant ships, or foreign trade, the subjects carry on none on their own

own bottoms. And, indeed, it seems to be a happiness, that all the Morocco dominions do not afford one tolerable harbour; that of Sallee, which is the best, being almost dry at low, and not twelve feet deep at high-water, besides a very inconvenient bar. Better ports might be an inducement to their making a figure at sea, and becoming a greater annoyance; but no flourishing trade or improvement can be carried on under a government so despotic, oppressive, and rapacious. The land is judged capable of producing a hundred times more than the inhabitants consume, yielding three crops a year; yet, except within three leagues of a town, it has no proprietor. Those who have a little money are afraid to let it out upon interest, lest they should be reputed wealthy, and, consequently, become a prey; they, therefore, bury it with any furniture of value, nothing being seen in their houses but a mat or two to lie on, and a few ordinary things. Their inland trade consists of caravans, two of which set out every year from Fez, to Mecca and Medina, carrying woollen manufactures, indigo, cochineal, skins, and ostrich feathers. They likewise send caravans to Guinea every year, consisting of many thousand camels. The tyranny of the government is said to be the motive of the Arabs continuing a wandering life, lest, by living in fixed habitations, they should forfeit all property and liberty by the rapaciousness of the officers. The emperor has a tenth of all corn, cattle, fruits, and produce of the soil; likewise, the tenth of prizes, and of all the captives. His whole revenue, ordinaries and extraordinaries, is computed at five hundred quintals of silver, each worth three hundred and eighty five pounds sterling; if the revenue of a monarch can be stated, who frequently confirms his absolute prerogative, by the ruin and death of the most dignified persons in his dominions. He has forty thousand Negroes in his army, and as many Moors, horse and foot. The Moors, or natives of the country, are of the same complexion as the Spaniards on the opposite shores; those that are exposed to the air a little tawny, but the rest as fair as Europeans.

Algiers, the next powerful state on this coast, is bound- *Algiers.*
ed on the east by Tunis, on the west by the kingdom of Fez, on the north by the Mediterranean, and on the south by the desarts of Biledulgerid. It enjoys a constant verdure; for in February the leaves begin to bud, and in April they shew their fruit in full growth, which are mostly ripe by May. The grapes are fit to gather in June; and the

the figs, peaches, nectarines, olives, nuts, &c. in August. The soil is various, many parts being dry, hot, and barren; others fertile in corn and fruit; and others in excellent pasture-grounds. The towns, even along the sea-coasts, are but few and thinly peopled, except the metropolis. The Algerines are very great pirates, and reckoned the most dangerous of all Africa. They are extremely avaricious and cruel to those that fall into their hands, especially to the Christians. In the city of Algiers, the capital of the whole kingdom, are merchants of several nations, and so numerous, that they amount at least to three thousand foreign families, which have settled there on the account of trade, and keep about two thousand shops in the two bazars of the place. The Jews, whose number amounts to eight thousand, dwell together in a particular quarter, and almost the whole trade here passes through their hands. The greatest commerce of the Algerines consists in the merchandize which they obtain by the piratical plunder of the Christians over the whole Mediterranean, and in part of the ocean. The Corsairs are continually bringing in prizes, with great numbers of Christian slaves. Their marine is so strong, that they fit out every year to the amount of twenty-three vessels, with three or four hundred men each.

Tunis.

The kingdom of Tunis is the country which was formerly the celebrated republic of Carthage. In its utmost extent it lay stretched along the coasts upwards of one hundred and twenty leagues; but is now reduced within a very little compass; extending only from east to west about sixty leagues, and about one hundred and five from north to south. Towards the west it is pretty fertile, being watered by some good rivers. Its greatest commerce consists in oil, olives, dates, soap, kali, or ashes, ostrich-feathers, camels, and horses. The many vallies between the high mountains afford plenty of corn, fruit, and pasture. The city of Tunis is said to owe most of its strength and beauty to the Arabs, who came hither from Carthage, where they did not think themselves so safe. It is now so populous, that it is computed to contain ten thousand families, and three thousand shops, where they sell linen and woollen; and the Venetians and Genoese are the two European nations that drive the greatest commerce with them. A great part of the inhabitants, both within the city and suburbs, are employed in the linen manufacture, which it here the finest in all Africa, their thread being the most delicate and best twisted; and it is of this that
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they weave that superfine cloth, of which they make those turbans called tunecis, so highly esteemed by the Turks and Moors. But their most advantageous business is piracy, in which they seem to be upon a level with their neighbours, especially in the number of Christian slaves they make. The province of Susa here is so called from its capital, an ancient Roman city, built upon a rock near the sea side, over against the island of Pentileria, and one of the nearest to Sicily of any of the African cities. It has a commodious large haven, where the pirates revel in safety; and the inhabitants, though mostly seamen, are reckoned a civil and trading people. The territory is fertile in barley, figs, olives, dates, and pasture-grounds. The city is strong, well walled, and is defended by a strong castle and garrison. It also drives a pretty good trade in oil, honey, wax, and especially in the tunny-fish, which is here caught and pickled, and in great request.

The kingdom of Tripoli has Tunis on the west, from *Tripoli.* which it is parted by the river Capes, which rises out of the sandy desert to the south, and falls into the Mediterranean. This kingdom has some large, trading, and populous cities on the coasts, where, besides several manufactures, the inhabitants carry on the piratical business to great advantage to themselves, though to the great hazard and loss of the European nations trading on the Mediterranean.

On the south coast of the Mediterranean, between *Desart of* Tripoli and Egypt, is situate the extensive desert of Barca, *Barca.* the ancient Cyrene, and formerly famed for the temple of Jupiter Ammon. It is now truly a desert, scarce a town or cultivated spot of ground being met with in it.

Of the same nature are Zaara and a good part of Biledulgerid; both divisions of Africa, situate between 20 *Zaara,* and 30 degrees of north latitude, having Negroland on *and Biledulgerid.* the south; Morocco, and the other parts of the coast of Barbary, on the the north; the unknown parts of Africa, on the east; and the Atlantic Ocean on the west. The name of Zaara implies a desert country; and it is in effect so destitute of water and provisions, that great part of the camels, which form the caravan that travels from Morocco to Guinea, are laden with water and necessaries for the subsistence of the people. Biledulgerid is the ancient Numidia, and was once tolerably fruitful, when it was possessed by an industrious people; but the Moham-medans, who are now masters of it, taking no care to cultivate the soil, it produces little more than Zaara. It
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is, however, renowned in some measure for its considerable quantities of dates. The people who inhabit it for the most part are Arabs; they live in tents, and being acquainted with the few springs and places where forage is to be found, pitch their tents sometimes in one part of the country, and sometimes in another; but though there are scarce any towns here at present, there are some considerable ruins, which shew that the country has been better inhabited and cultivated. What is most remarkable is the change of complexion, there being scarce any blacks north of Negroland, but what have been purchased in Guinea, and carried to Morocco. There is also a change of religion as well as complexion; the people of Guinea and Negroland being for the most part pagans, and those of Biledulgerid, Morocco, and the coast of Barbary, Mohammedans.

*Reflections
on the pi-
ratical
states of
Barbary.*

The Mohammedans, wherever they are established, especially those of them who partake of the genius and disposition of the Turks, have very little inclination to the arts of industry. This evidently appears in the inhabitants of those parts we have been now describing on the African sea-coast. Being a rapacious and tyrannical people, disdaining all industry and labour, neglecting all culture and improvement, it made them thieves and robbers, as naturally as idleness makes beggars; and, being trained to rapine and spoil, when they were no longer able to plunder and destroy the fruitful plains of Valentia, Granada, and Andalusia, they fell to roving upon the sea. They built ships, or rather seized them from others, and ravaged the neighbouring coasts, landing in the night, surprising, and carrying away the poor country people out of their beds into slavery. This was their first occupation, and this naturally made pirates of them: for, not being content with mere landing and plundering the sea-coasts of Spain, by degrees, being grown powerful and rich, and made bold and audacious by their success, they armed their ships, and began to attack, first the Spaniards upon the high seas, and then all the Christian nations of Europe, wherever they could find them. Thus this detestable practice of roving and robbing began. What magnitude they are since arrived to, what mischief they have brought upon the trading part of the world, how powerful they are grown, and how they are erected into states and governments, nay, into kingdoms, and, as they would be called, empires, for the kings of Fez and Morocco call themselves emperors; and how they are, to the disgrace

disgrace of all Christian powers, treated with as such, is well known from the histories of those nations who have been at any time embroiled with them.

The first Christian prince, who, resenting the insolence of these barbarians, and disdaining to make peace with them, resolved their destruction, was the emperor Charles V. he was moved with a generous compassion for the many thousands of miserable Christians who were, at that time, kept among them in slavery; and, from a benevolent principle of setting the Christian world free from the terror of such barbarians, he undertook singly, and without the assistance of any other nation, to fall upon them with all his power. In this war, had he been joined by the French and English, and the Hans-towns (as for the Dutch they were not then a nation), he might have cleared the country; at least, he might have cleared the sea-coasts of the whole race, and have planted colonies of Christians in all the ports, for the encouragement of commerce, and for the safety of all the European nations. But Francis I. king of France, his mortal and constant enemy, envied him the glory of the greatest and best enterprize that was ever projected in Europe; an enterprize a thousand times beyond all the crusades and expeditions to the Holy Land, which, during one hundred and twenty years, cost Europe, and to no purpose, a million of lives and immense treasure. Though the emperor was assisted by no one prince in Christendom, the pope excepted (and his artillery would not go far in battering down stone-walls), yet he took the fortress of Goletta, and afterwards the city, and the whole kingdom of Tunis; and, had he kept possession, it might have proved a happy fore-runner of farther conquests; but, miscarrying in his attempt against Algiers, and a terrible storm falling upon his fleet, the farther attempt was laid aside, and the kingdom of Tunis returned to its former possessors, by which means their piracies are still continued.

There seems, therefore, to be a necessity, that all the powers of Europe, especially the maritime, should endeavour to free themselves from the insolence of these rovers, that their subjects may thereby be protected in their persons and goods from the hands of rapine and violence, their coasts secured from insults and descents, and their ships from capture on the sea. The conquest could not be attended with any great difficulty, if the English, Dutch, French, and Spaniards would unite, to join their forces and fleets, and fall upon them in separate bodies, and in

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several places at the same time. The general benefit of commerce would immediately follow, by settling the government of the sea-coast towns in the hands and possession of the several united powers; so that every one should possess the least, in proportion to the forces employed in the conquest of it; the consequence of the success would soon be sensibly felt by the interested parties; for if the quantity of productions fitted for the use of merchandize be so considerable as we find it to be, even now, under the indolence and sloth of the most barbarous people in the world, how may we suppose all those valuable things to be increased by the industry and application of the diligent Europeans, especially the English, French, or Dutch. We might also reasonably suppose, that the Moors, being in consequence of such a conquest driven up farther into the country (for we do not propose the rooting them out as a nation, but only the supplanting or removing them from a situation which they have justly forfeited by their depredations upon other nations), and being obliged to seek their subsistence by honest labour and application, would at length be induced to increase the product; and, as multitudes of Christians would be encouraged, by the advantages of the place, to go over and settle upon it, the manufactures and merchandizes of Europe must soon find a great additional consumption; and the many new ports and harbours where those Christian nations might settle, would be so many new markets for the sale of those manufactures, where they had little or no sale or consumption before. Besides, would not the success be delivering Europe from the depredations of powerful thieves, and their commerce and navigation from the rapine of a merciless crew, who are the ruin of thousands of families, and in some sense, the reproach of Christendom. Such measures as these are far from being impracticable; they are worthy of being undertaken by the princes and powers of Europe, and would, therefore, bring infinitely more glory to the Christian name, than all their intestine wars among each other, which are the scandal of Europe, and the only thing, that, at first, let in the Turks, and other barbarians among them.

*African
islands.*

To finish our account of Africa, some notice remains to be taken of its islands, some of which lie in the Eastern or Indian Ocean; and some in the Western or Atlantic Ocean. We shall begin with the Eastern.

Zocotora.

The first of any note that presents itself in the Indian Ocean is Zocotora, situate in east longitude 53°, north
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latitude 12° , thirty leagues east of Cape Gardesoi, on the continent of Africa. It is about eighty miles long, and fifty-four broad, and has two pretty good harbours in it, where ships put in sometimes when they lose their passage to India, the country being plentiful, and affording such fruits and plants as are usually found within the tropics; as also frankincense, gum traganth, and aloes.

Babelmandel is situate in east longitude $44^{\circ} 30'$, north latitude 12° . It commands the streight at the entrance of the Red Sea; and preserves the communication between Ethiopia and Arabia; on which account it was formerly much contended for by the Ethiopians and Arabs; otherwise it is of very little consequence, being a barren sandy spot of earth, not five miles round.

The Comorra Islands are situate between 41 and 46 deg. east longitude, and between 10 and 14 deg. south latitude, equally distant from Madagascar, and the continent of Africa. Joanna, the chief, is about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad; and affords plenty of provisions, and such fruits as are produced between the tropics. East India ships bound to Bombay usually touch here for refreshment. The people are Negroes, of the Mohammedan religion, and entertain our seamen with great humanity and hospitality.

Mauritius is situate in east longitude 56° , south latitude 20° , about four hundred miles east of Madagascar. It was subject to the Dutch, who named it Maurice, in honour of their stadtholder, but is now possessed by the French. It is of an oval form, about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference, a mountainous country, well covered with good timber of several sorts, and watered with several rivulets which run down from the mountains. The Dutch erected saw-mills upon it, and from thence supplied their settlements in India with plank. This island was of great use to the Dutch before they possessed the Cape of Good Hope, having then no other place to furnish them with refreshments between Europe and India.

Madagascar, or St. Laurence, the chief of the African Islands, is situate between 43 and 51 deg. of east longitude, and between 12 and 26 degrees of south latitude, three hundred miles south-east of the continent of Africa, and is about one thousand miles in length from north to south, and generally between two and three hundred miles broad. It abounds in corn, cattle, fish, fowl, and all manner of animals and vegetables that are to be found

on the continent of Africa. Here are a great variety of hills, vallies, woods, and champaign; and the island is well watered with springs and rivers; neither does it want good harbours, and yet no European nation has thought it worth while to plant colonies in it, no merchandize being produced therein that will bear the expence of so long a voyage, except Negroes, which are purchased here as well as on the continent, by trading ships. But besides Negroes, there are white men, and a tawny generation upon the coast, who are descended from the Arabs, as is evident from their language, and their religious rites, having a mixture of Mohammedanism, Judaism, and Paganism; but they have no mosques, temples, nor any stated worship. The country is divided amongst a great many petty sovereigns, to whom the seamen that touch there give the titles of kings and princes, who, making war on each other, as they do on the continent, sell their prisoners, or slaves, to the shipping which call here, taking clothing, utensils, and other necessaries, in return. European pirates, of which lately was the noted Avery, had frequently their stations in the harbours of this island. It is confidently affirmed, that the island has also gold and silver mines; but it is not known in what province they lie. Nor does it want for precious stones, as topazes, amethysts, agates, &c. but the natives value a plate of copper more than the most beautiful precious stone, when rough; and deride foreigners who bid them any thing for them. The island is not populous in proportion to its bigness.

Bourbon.

Mascarin, called Mascareigne, or the Isle of Bourbon by the French, is about three hundred and seventy miles distant from the coast of Madagascar, to the east, under the twenty-first and twenty-second degrees of south latitude. It was discovered by a Portuguese of the house of Mascarenhas, who gave it his name. Afterwards M. de Flacourt, governor of Fort Dauphin, and of the French settlements in Madagascar, gave it the name of Bourbon, in the year 1654, when he took possession of it in the name of his king. However, the French did not settle at first upon this island; but, finding afterwards how advantageous it might prove to their navigation, they made a considerable settlement there in 1672, after they had quitted the island of Madagascar. They have now pretty considerable towns there, with a governor and several magistrates. There are many good roads for shipping about this island, but no safe ports to secure ships against the violent

violent storms which often rage in those parts. This is, at present, the baiting-place of the French East India ships, and the only one where they can conveniently get refreshments. The island, which is about ninety miles round, is fruitful in plants, and abounds particularly with aloes, tobacco, white-pepper, ebony, palm, and other fruit-trees; a kind of trees which produce odoriferous gums, as benzoin, &c. and a great many trees proper for timber. The soil is well watered by several small rivers, rivulets, and springs of very good water; and the rivers abound with fish. On the sea-shore are gathered great quantities of ambergrise, coral, and fine shells. There are many more small islands about Madagascar, but not worth mentioning. The islands of the Atlantic Ocean, next in order, are

St. Helena, situate in west longitude $6^{\circ} 30'$, south latitude 16° , twelve hundred miles west of the continent of Africa, and eighteen hundred east of South America. It is a rock in the middle of the ocean, very high and steep, about twenty miles in circumference, and only accessible at the landing-place, which is defended by batteries of guns. A foot of good earth covers the top of it, and produces corn, grapes, and all fruit proper for the climate. It abounds also in cattle, poultry, and other fowls; but the inhabitants are unfortunate in having a multitude of rats in the island, which eat up all the corn as soon as it is sown; and, by burrowing in the rock, there is no practicable means of destroying them; so that all the flour they use is imported from England, and in a scarcity they generally eat yams and potatoes, instead of bread. The East India company are proprietors of the island, which was given them by king Charles II. soon after it was taken from the Dutch by admiral Monday, in 1672. There are about two hundred families in the island, most of them the children of the English that planted it: their complexions are as good as those of the natives of Old England, though they lie in so warm a latitude; which may be ascribed to the trade winds, which constantly blow over them, and the sea, which so closely surrounds the island, and renders it cooler than might be expected. Here the English East India ships take in water and fresh provisions in their way home; but the island is so very small, and the wind so much against them outward-bound, that they very seldom see it then; and if a ship overshoots the island, and falls to leeward, it is very difficult to recover it.

Ascension.

The Island of Ascension is situate in seventeen degrees west longitude, and seven south latitude, six hundred miles north-west of St. Helena. It is about twenty miles round and uninhabited; but the East India ships usually touch here to furnish themselves with turtle, or tortoises, which are plentiful and very large, some of them weighing above a hundred pounds a-piece.

St. Matthew.

The island of St. Matthew lies in 9 degrees west longitude, and in $2^{\circ} 30'$ south latitude, seven hundred miles south of Cape Palmas.

St. Thomas.

The island of St. Thomas is situate under the equator, in eight degrees, east longitude.

Anaboa.

Anaboa is situate near the coast of Loango, in east longitude $8^{\circ} 30'$, south latitude 1° .

Prince's Island.

Prince's Island on the same coast, in east longitude 9° , north latitude 1° .

Fernando Po.

Fernando Po is situate in east longitude 10° , north latitude 3° , near the mouth of the river Cameron. These five are small islands belonging to the Portuguese, which furnish shipping with fresh water and provisions as they pass by, but are not considerable on any other account.

Goree.

Goree is situate in 14 deg. 41 min. north latitude, and 17 deg. 20 min. west longitude, about eight leagues to the south-east of Cape Verd, and within about three miles of the continent. It is about three quarters of a mile in length, and one quarter in breadth. It was taken, in 1758, from the French, by commodore Keppel, and restored to them by the definitive treaty of peace in the year 1763. Its appearance from the sea is low and even, except towards the south-west, where it rises into a rocky hill, upon the summit of which is situated the fort, called St. Michael. Besides French natives, the island is inhabited by about three hundred free Negroes, all Christians, who live in the plain, to the south.

Cape Verd Islands.

Cape Verd Islands are situate between the 13th deg. 50 minutes, and the 17th deg. 50 minutes of north latitude, and between the 22d and 25th degrees of longitude west from London. They were discovered by Antonio Noel, a Genoese, in the service of Portugal, in the year 1460, and are governed by a viceroy from Portugal, who resides in the isle of St. Jago. The inhabitants are Europeans, or families originally from Europe, with a good number of Negroes, all professing the religion of the church of Rome. The most considerable of these islands are,

Mayo, the whole of which is a very dry sort of soil, without any fresh water or streams to moisten it; but only showers in the wet season, which run off as fast as they

they fall. There is but one small spring in the middle of the isle, from which proceeds a little stream of water, that runs through a valley between the hills. On the west side of the island, where the road for ships is, there is a large sandy bay, and a sand-bank about forty paces wide, which runs two or three miles along the shore, within which there is a large salina, or salt-pond, contained between the sand-bank and the hills beyond it. The waters which yield this salt work out of the sea, through a hole in the sand-bank, like a sluice, and that only in spring-tides, when it fills the pond, more or less, according to the height of the tides. They who come hither to lade salt take it up as it kerns, and lay it up in heaps on the dry land, before the water breaks in again. Our nation drives a great trade here for salt, and has commonly a man of war stationed here, for the guard of our ships and barques that come to take it in; of which, in some years, there have not been less than a hundred in a year. It costs nothing but men's labour to rake it together, and wheel it out of the pond, except the carriage, and that is also very cheap; the inhabitants having plenty of asses, for which they have little to do, besides carrying the salt from the ponds to the sea-side, at the season when the ships are here. These asses too are a commodity in some of those islands, several of our ships coming hither to freight with them, carry them to Barbadoes, and our other plantations. The inhabitants of this island, even their governor and priests, are all Negroes, and speak the Portuguese language. The Negro governor expects a small present from every commander that lades salt, and is glad to be invited aboard their ships.

St. Jago is the chief, the most fruitful, and best inhabited of all the islands of Cape Verd; and yet is mountainous and has much barren land. On the east side of the island is a town called Baya, with a good port, which, in peaceable times, especially, is seldom without ships: for this has been long a place where ships outward-bound to Guinea, or the East Indies, English, French, and Dutch, have been wont to touch at for water and refreshments; but few ships call here on their return to Europe. St. Jago town, the capital of the island, lies on the south-west part of it, and is the seat of the general-governor, and of the bishop of all the Cape Verd Islands. There are several small sugar-works on this island, from which they send into Portugal near a hundred tons every year; and they have plenty of cotton growing in the country,

wherewith they clothe themselves, and send also a great deal to Brasil. They have some wines, and an abundance of different sorts of excellent fruits.

The other islands are, Buena Vista, Sal or Salt Island, St. Nicholas, St. Lucia, St. Vincent, St. Anthony, Fuego a volcano, and Brava; some of which have very good roads and harbours. The island Sal is full of large salt ponds, where the water naturally congeals into salt; and at St. Vincent the Portuguese load hides.

Canaries.

The Canaries, anciently called the Fortunate Islands, are situate between 12 and 19 degrees west longitude, and between 27 and 29 north latitude, about one hundred and fifty miles south-west of Morocco. The chief island, called the Great Canary, which communicates its name to the rest, is situate between 27 and 28 degrees of north latitude, and is about one hundred and fifty miles in circumference. The particular names of the others are Lancerota, Fuerte Ventura, Teneriffe, Gomera, Ferro, and Palma; in all seven in number. These islands enjoy a pure temperate air, and we may judge of the richness of the soil from their having frequently two harvests in a year. They abound particularly in the most delicious fruits, among which the grapes produce those rich wines that obtain the name of Canary, whereof no less than ten thousand hogsheads are annually exported to England in time of peace. They were first discovered and planted by the Carthaginians; but the Romans destroying that state, put a stop to navigation, especially on the west coast of Africa, and these islands lay concealed afterwards from the rest of the world, for many ages, till they were again discovered by the Spaniards in 1405. The natives, upon the first landing of the Spaniards were idolaters, worshipping the sun and stars; their number was very considerable; they were robust and active, and well skilled in the management of the warlike weapons of bows, arrows, and darts. None of the people of the continent could understand their language; but when they had learnt Spanish enough to be understood, could give no account of their ancestors, or from what country they came; and though they resembled the natives of the north of Africa in their stature and complexion, retained none of their customs, were masters of no science, and did not know there was any country in the world besides their own. Having struggled for their liberties till about the year 1460, they were forced to yield to the superior power of their invaders, who sent a great number of them to Spain;

Spain, to end their days in slavery. Those that were more fortunate have endeavoured to retain their ancient demesnes, by submitting entirely to the Spanish yoke in church and state, and now far exceed their teachers in probity and civility to strangers.

The Gran Canaria, the capital, which stands on the south-west side of the island, called the Great Canary, is defended by a very ordinary castle; but its best defence are the rocks that lie under water, which make the approach to the shore very dangerous. There is eighteen fathom water before it, and it measures about a league in circumference; but the houses, though for the most part built well enough, are low, seldom above one story, and terraced at top. Here is the episcopal see, the inquisition-office, the supreme council, or assembly of the states of the seven islands, and several houses of monks, friars, and nuns.

About fourteen leagues from the Great Canary, is Teneriffe, in which is a mountain called the Pico, or Peak of Teneriffe. It is so high, that as soon as the sun appears, its shadow seems to cover not only this and the Great Canary Island, but even the sea to the very horizon; where its top, in the form of a sugar-loaf, seems to turn up, and to cast its shadow into the air. It requires three days to arrive at the top, from whence may be seen to the distance of above fifty leagues round, and all the adjacent islands plainly discovered; and, though it often emits fire, flames, smoke, and ashes, like *Ætna* and *Vesuvius*, it is so cold, and covered with snow at the top, that there is no ascending it but from the middle of May to the middle of August. In the year 1704, there happened so dreadful an eruption of sulphur and melted ore from this mountain, that it ran down like a river, and destroyed several considerable towns, spoiling the richest lands in the island, and converting them into a barren desert.

The most remarkable curiosity of these islands is the fountain-tree, in the island of Ferro. This island has neither river, spring, fountain, nor well, though twenty-five leagues in circumference; but was formerly supplied with abundance of wholesome fresh water by means of this wonderful tree. All the authors who have recorded the discovery of these islands mention it; and *Lewis Jackson*, an Englishman, has exactly described its nature and qualities. This tree is as thick as an oak, between six and seven fathom high, the branches spreading somewhat loose

Fountain-tree, a remarkable production of nature.

loose and open, and the leaves like those of laurel, white within and green without; it bears neither fruit nor blossoms, dries, and seems to wither in the day-time, when the sun shines, and drops water all night; when a cloud always hovers about its top. Under each of these trees, of which there are many in this island, there was a cistern or basin, capable of holding sufficient water for eight thousand inhabitants, and one hundred thousand beasts on this island. The principal basin is supposed to have contained twenty thousand tons, and was filled in one night, and conveyed through several canals into other reservoirs about the island; a thing incredible, did not experience evince the truth of it. Hence also we may account for its name, *Pluvialia*, in ancient geography, which imports, that this island was supplied with water from heaven. Some modern writers have taken the liberty to decry this account as a mere fiction; merely, because Providence having taught the inhabitants a more easy manner of saving rain-water in cisterns, and of filtering brackish water for common use, thought proper to alter its former method: and indeed this method of supplying a certain people with water from heaven, is as easy to be accounted for, as God's feeding the Israelites forty years with bread from heaven in the wilderness; and there is no more inconsistency in its ceasing now for some years past, since the inhabitants have been providentially instructed to supply their want of water in a more natural way, than there is in God's ceasing to rain manna every morning, after the Israelites were arrived in a land, where, by art, cultivation, and industry, they were able to procure corn from the earth for their sustenance. These exertions of God's Providence were done, and continued so long as needful for the support of his creatures, to shew that his mercy is over all his works, and were only discontinued when they were enabled to provide for themselves in a natural way.

Madeira.

Madeira, the best of the African islands, lies under the thirty-second degree of north latitude, and under the seventeenth and eighteenth degrees of longitude, west from London. The air is far more moderate than in the Canary Islands, and the soil more fertile in corn, wine, sugar, and fruits, being much better watered by five or six little rivers; but it is alike stored with the same sort of cattle, birds, plants, and trees, from which are had dragons-blood, mastic, and other gums. Here is a perpetual spring, and warm weather, which produce blossoms and fruit

fruit every month in the year. The lemons are of a monstrous size, with oranges of all sorts. Fruit-trees from Europe thrive in perfection. They make here the best sweet-meats in the world, and succeed wonderfully in preserving large citrons, and beautiful oranges, and in making marmalades and perfumed pastes, which infinitely exceed those of Genoa, whatever the Italians may pretend. The sugar they make is extremely beautiful, and smells naturally of violets. This is the first place in the West where this manufacture was set on foot; and from hence it has been carried into America, where they make such vast quantities of sugar, that the Portuguese, finding that this trade was not so profitable to them here as it proved at first, pulled up the greatest part of their sugar-canes, and planted vineyards in their stead, which produce excellent wine, and which foreigners come to purchase, and whereby the Portuguese make an immense profit. It is observable of Madiera wine, that the heat of the sun improves it much, when exposed to it in the barrel, after the bung is taken off. They make in the whole island, about twenty-eight thousand pipes of wine, eight thousand of which are drank there, and the rest exported, the greatest part to the West Indies, especially to Barbadoes. The chief towns are Fuchal and Porto Santo, both very populous. This island wants harbours, and has only a bay, which is safe enough, except when the wind blows from the south-west. The Portuguese planted this island in 1425, and by burning down the woods with which it was almost covered, rendered it exceeding fruitful. It is computed to be about one hundred and twenty miles in circumference.

C H A P. III.

Of E U R O P E.

S E C T. I.

*Of Europe in general.**Boundaries
and extent.*

EUROPE, one of the four divisions made by geographers of the whole world, is bounded on the north by the Frozen Ocean; on the south by the Mediterranean Sea, which divides it from Africa; on the east by Asia, from which it is parted by the Archipelago, the Euxine or Black Sea, and the Palus Mæotis, and thence by a line drawn from the river Tanais or Don, almost to the river Oby, in Muscovy; and on the west it is bounded by the Atlantic Ocean. It is extended between 34 and 80 degrees north latitude, and between 5 and 80 degrees of longitude, reckoning the first meridian to pass through the island of Teneriffe. It contains in breadth as a continent, from the North Cape to Cape Metapan in the Morea, about two thousand six hundred miles; and in length, from the mouth of the river Oby in the east, to Cape St. Vincent in Portugal, west, about two thousand eight hundred miles.

*Advantages of
Europe.*

Though Europe be the least of the four parts of the world, it may justly have the preference for the mildness of the air, the fertility of the soil, the many navigable rivers, the great plenty of corn, cattle, wine, oil, and all things requisite, not only for the sustenance and comfort, but even for the luxury of human life; and more especially for the beauty, strength, courage, ingenuity, industry, and wisdom of its inhabitants; the excellency of their governments, the equity of their laws, the freedom of their subjects; and, which surpasses all, the purity and sanctity of the Christian religion, which is professed throughout all Europe, except that part of it which is possessed by the Turks. Europe also has for many ages been exceeding populous, and her inhabitants, in general, are justly illustrious for their valour, wisdom, and virtue; by which they conquered the greatest part of Asia and Africa, and subjected them to the two empires of Greece and Rome; and, in these latter ages, almost one half of the earth, that was formerly unknown, has been discovered

vered by Europeans, and possessed by the colonies they have sent thither.

The Europeans also have been the most renowned for learning and arts. All their scholastic sciences they have brought to a much greater perfection than either the Asiatics or Africans ever did; and the invention and improvement of numberless useful and ingenious arts, particularly that of navigation, on which all intercourse of foreign commerce between distant nations depends, is wholly owing to the genius and industry of the inhabitants of this part of the world.

Europe was peopled after the flood, as is generally believed, by the posterity of Japhet, who came from Asia Minor, over the Hellespont, into Greece; though some say, that the descendants of Shem, passing by land between the Caspian Sea and the Palus Mæotis, went through Tartary and Scythia into Scandinavia, and thence afterwards into France, Germany, and the neighbouring countries. Which of these opinions is most to be credited we cannot undertake to determine; but we may account for, with great certainty, the original of the principal states of Europe, as to their present constitution, in this manner.

Europe how first peopled.

The Roman empire was destroyed by those multitudes of people that poured forth from the North at different times into different countries, and most of the nations that are considerable at present were peopled by them, and are in the possession of their descendants. The first of these that ravaged Europe were the Cimbri, so early as the year 639 from the building of Rome, but they were entirely extirpated by Marius before they got footing in Italy. The Visigoths, or western Goths, had better success some centuries afterwards; they sacked Rome under Alaric, in the year of Christ 409, and settled in Italy, Languedoc, and Spain; though their Italian kingdom was ruined by Narses the eunuch, Justinian's general, in 552. The provinces of Gaul fell to the share of the Franks and Burgundians, and still retain the names of their conquerors. The Huns subdued Pannonia, which has ever since been called Hungary. The Romans being no longer able to defend Britain from the incursions of the Picts and other wild people, the Britons called in the Angles, or Saxons, to their assistance, who defeated both parties in their turn, took possession of the best part of the country for themselves, and gave it the name of England. The Britons, thus expelled from their inheritance by their foreign allies,

Origin of the European states.

lies, retired, some into that part of France which is from them called Brittany, and others, who would not adventure to quit the island, retreated beyond the river Severn, into that part of it which was named Wales by the Saxons.

The Longobardi, or Lombards, a people originally from Scandinavia, but last from Hungary, were the next that settled in Italy, part of which is called Lombardy. Afterwards the Normans, another northern people, overrun that part of France which still bears the name of Normandy, obtained the crown of England under William I. penetrated even into Italy, and there founded the kingdom of Naples.

The last emperor of the western part of the Roman empire was Augustulus, driven out of Italy by an inundation of barbarous people about the latter end of the fifth century, under Odoacer, who changed the title, and was the first who called himself king of the Romans. Amongst the effects of these changes, religion was not the least; for as the removal of the seat of empire from Rome to Constantinople was the true cause of the ruin of the Roman state, so it was the very means of the rise of the Roman church; for the popes, or bishops of Rome, who until that time had no authority but that which their piety and learning gave them amongst an ignorant people, became, in the absence of the emperors, mediators of all the differences of Italy. On the destruction of the eastern empire by the Turks, the popes had recourse to France to support the power they had gained by degrees against the encroachments of the Lombards, and it was Charlemagne who laid the foundation of and established that vast influence which this spiritual monarchy afterwards obtained. In return for this they made him emperor, and he created his son king of the Romans, which title is still often vested in the eldest son of the emperor of Germany, though not now by creation, but by a majority of the electors of the empire, to which the person so chosen succeeds in course. The pope created the priests near Rome cardinals, who soon excluded the people from their right of voting in the election of a pope, and always advanced one of their own college to the holy see. The pope also in the time of Otho III. deprived the Roman people of their right of voting in the election of an emperor, a privilege they had till then enjoyed, and vested it in the six electorates of Germany, three ecclesiastic, Mentz, Triers or Treves, and Cologne; and three secular princes,

Brandenburg, Palatine, and Saxony; to these latter Bavaria and Hanover have since been added; the kingdom of Bohemia has also a vote in the election. The emperors and popes, though they had thus mutually concurred to the aggrandizement of each other, soon disagreed, insomuch that pope Alexander II. ventured to degrade Henry II. from the empire. This bold step divided Italy, and was the origin of the famous parties of Guelfs and Ghibellines, the latter of whom favoured the imperial, the former the papal authority. A principal partizan among the Guelfs was Maud, countess of Tuscany, who left that part of her dominions which is still called the Patrimony of St. Peter, to the church. This was a great addition of power to the popes, but the occasion of almost all the wars that happened in Italy for two centuries afterwards; for the popes, to extend their own dominions, or to erect principalities or dukedoms for their families, called first one foreign power, then another, into Italy, and gave rise to all the pretensions which the French, Spaniards, and Germans, have upon most of the territories there; and to those disputes in which so much blood has been shed, and which have required so many treaties to adjust them, even down to the present times.

The modern powers of Europe, built upon the ruins of the Roman empire are, the empire of Germany, with all its sovereign independent states; the kingdoms of France, Spain, England, Hungary, Naples, and Sardinia; the territories of the pope, and all the dukedoms and republics of Italy. The eastern empire is now entirely under the dominion of the Turk, where the sword of Mohammed has planted his doctrine, which is likely to continue without the divine interposition; for the interests of Christian potentates will always be different, and the humour of entering into wars for the sake of religion is over long since.

All these great changes did not only alter the names of the provinces, cities, and rivers, but gave rise to several modern languages; those of France, Spain, and Italy, being various mixtures of the ancient Roman or Latin tongue, with that then spoken by the new possessors of these several countries. Nothing bids fairer to discover the origin of nations than the critical knowledge of languages; for it is evident, that as historical monuments are far from reaching to the origin of nations, great use may be made of the vestiges of ancient languages still remaining, especially in the proper names of rivers and forests,

Use of languages to discover the origin of nations;

forests, and even of countries, towns, and men; and as it may be laid down as a principle, that all proper names were originally appellative, the question will be therefore to find out the signification of those ancient names, which is not always impossible.

We learn from a verse in the poet Venantius Fortunatus, that the word Ric, or Ricus, which was the termination of so many names among the Germani, Franks, Alemanni, Saxons, Goths, Vandals, &c. signified only fortis, *strong*, since that poet renders the name Chilperic, adjutor fortis, *a strong helper*; and help, or hulpe, is used still in the Teutonic languages, for auxilium, *assistance*. One may observe in the greatest part of our continent, some remains of an ancient prevailing language, which has been as it were perpetuated, by some words used from the British sea as far as Japan. Without dwelling upon the word sack, which has been observed by so many grammarians, the ancient Celtic word mar, or mare, *a horse*, not only still remains in the word marechal, a word common to so many languages, but is not unknown to the most eastern Tartars, namely, to those who conquered China. Such is again the word kan, *king, prince*, derived from the verbs kan, konnen, which in the Teutonic language signify posse, *to be able*; for it is well known that these words, king, könig, chagon, kan, denote or denoted, *a monarch, a great man*, among all the Germanic nations, the Sarmatæ, the Huns, the Persians, the Turks, and the Tartars, as far as China.

Hence there is good reason to believe, that the greatest part of the words of the primitive language were formed by onomatopoeia, that is, men endeavoured to express, by a sound, the idea or passion excited in them, by the presence of certain objects; and that therefore, for example, the power and strength of those, who first usurped empire over men, are in some measure represented by the strong pronunciation of the word kan, which is owing to the letter *k*.

All the languages derived from that primitive language may be properly divided into two great classes. The first we may call Japhetic, or Scythian languages; these were spread through the northern countries, in which we may reckon all Europe. The second go by the name of Aramean languages, and were spoken in the southern countries: among the latter the Arabic seems to have prevailed over all others, the Syriac, Chaldaic, Hebrew, Punic, and Ethiopic, being only dialects of it. The Persian,

Persian, Armenian, and Georgian, are a mixture of the Scythian and Aramean languages: As for the Coptic, or Egyptian, there is little affinity between it and the other southern languages, that its original might well be derived from the ancient language spoken in Ethiopia, before the Arabs penetrated into that country.

From the ancient Scythian language sprung those of the Turks, Sarmatians, Finnonians, and Celtæ: by the ancient Scythians are understood those nations that first inhabited the shores of the Euxine Sea, and are called Cimmerii by Homer. A surprising affinity is found between some words of the ancient Scythian language, preserved by Herodotus, and those languages which are originally Celtic, such as the Greek, the Latin, the Irish, and the German. That Greek historian informs us that the Amazons, a Scythian nation, were surnamed *Æor-pata*, that is, *murderers of men*, from these two Scythian words *æor*, *man*, and *pata*, *to kill*: but this last word is very like the ancient Latin verb *batuo*, which signifies the same thing; and the word *æor* comes very near these Latin, Irish, and German words, *vir*, *baro*, *herus*, *herr*, *er*, *var*, which denote *a man*. In the Greek, Latin, and German languages, the etymology of the Scythian word *arimaspi* may be found out: it was, according to the testimony of Herodotus, the name of a Scythian nation; so called because the men had but one eye; for, says Herodotus, *arima* signifies *one*, in the Scythian language; and *spi* signifies *eye*: We find some vestiges of those two words, both as to the sound and signification, in the Greek word *ἐρημία*, *solitude*; in the German word *arm*, *poor*, *desolate*, *forsaken*; and in these Latin, German, Italian, and French words, *specere*, *spehen*, *spiare*, *espier*, which signifies *to see*, *to look*. Thus it were to be wished that some learned man would give himself the trouble to make a collection of all the ancient Scythian words, as others have collected all the ancient terms used among the Gauls, Phrygians, Ethiopians, &c.

If we take a survey of the several nations which may be deemed Scythians by extraction, we may begin with the Turks, with whom may be enumerated the Little Tartars, the Calmucs, the Moguls, and the eastern Tartars, because the language of all those nations have a great affinity: afterwards we may proceed to the Sarmatians, called since Slavonians, to whom may be referred not only the Muscovites, the Poles, the Bohemians, the Moravians, the Bulgarians, the Dalmatians, and the Slavonians

nians of our time, but also other Sarmatians more northern, bordering upon the Baltic Sea, and called Wendi or Venedi; of whom are still some considerable remains in the duchy of Lunenberg, and in Lusatia and Brandenburg. Among the Sarmatians may also be reckoned the Huns and the Avari, who formerly invaded Pannonia or Hungary; the Rascians, the Servians, the Croatians, and some other nations are their posterity: as for the Hungari, they did not make themselves masters of Pannonia till a long time after being come from the Asiatic Scythia, under the empire of Charlemagne. What shews that the Huns were Sarmatians, or Sclavonians, is, that in the language of the latter, *coni*, or *chuni*, signifies *a horse*; and it is well known that the Huns had no other troops but cavalry, as the Tartars; so that Hun and *horseman* are one and the same thing. Besides Jornandes, describing the funeral of Attila, king of the Huns, mentions a great feast, which he calls *Strawa*; a name used to this day, among the Sclavonians, to denote a great apparel. As for what concerns the Finnonians, Tacitus, who calls them *Fennos*, represents them as a wild and fierce people, which very well agrees with the Laplanders and Samoeids, who in some respects are originally Finnonians. It is very probable that the inhabitants of Esthonia and Livonia, and some other nations that live along the shores of the Baltic Sea, whose language have no affinity with the Sclavonian, might be of a Finnonian race; but it is more than probable that the Hungarians, who came from Asia, are of the same race; the more, because there is no language in Europe that comes so near the Hungarian as the Finnonian.

The Celtæ came originally from Scythia, and spread themselves through the greatest part of Europe: they peopled by degrees, Germany, Gaul, Italy, Spain, and Great Britain. Hence it seems well grounded that the ancient Britons were the first inhabitants of Ireland, and that the language of that country would afford the best means of reviving the ancient Celtic. The Cambrians, or Cimbri, now called among us the Welsh, and the Anglo Saxons, succeeded the ancient Britons. The first inhabitants of Italy were the Celtæ, who came from Germany and Gaul; and, in process of time, many Greeks, Lydians, Phrygians, Phœnicians, and other nations were incorporated with them. The ancient Etrurian language, which is no longer understood, as its characters cannot be read, was in all probability spoken by the ancient

cient inhabitants of Italy. As for the Spaniards, it may be believed that they are generally of a Celtic extraction; but the Basques may well perplex any linguist, because their language being so far different from all those known to us, it may be thought, with good reason, that, before the arrival of the Celtæ in Spain, that country was inhabited by some African colony, from which the Basques are descended. Some have thought they found an analogy between this language and the Irish; but they are indeed quite different.

Germany sent several colonies into France and Italy, and also furnished Scandinavia with new inhabitants, who drove away the Finnonians, or Laplanders. This opinion seems to differ much from that of several learned men in the North, who look upon the Germans as a colony of the ancient Goths. Certain it is, that this origin would have some probability, if the inhabitants of the remotest parts of Sweden and Norway spoke the Germanic language. These inhabitants are Laplanders, or Finnonians; but their language has no affinity with the German. It may, notwithstanding, be said, that the Germans, having increased in Scandinavia, spread themselves again through Germany; for it is certain that the Cimbri, the Saxons, the Heruli, the Vandals, and some other nations, came from the shores of the Baltic Sea; but this happened long after the first migrations.

From these cursory reflections on the use of languages to discover the origin of nations, an ingenious person, besides satisfying curiosity, may find wherewithal to supply with very probable conjectures the deficiency of historical monuments. The hint is improveable, and in the main may be attended with some utility.

But to resume the course of our general observations upon Europe, from which we may seem to have digressed; it may be said, that though Europe is esteemed the most happy and valuable quarter of the globe, these prerogatives are not derived from its size, since it is the least of all the four into which the world is divided. It has been supposed, that if the whole habitable globe was divided into three hundred parts, Europe will contain of these twenty-seven, Asia, one hundred and one, Africa, eighty-two, and America, ninety: and though Europe respectively excels America, and perhaps Africa, yet she falls far short of Asia, if we may depend on the accounts of the least experienced travellers. With regard to subterranean riches, her gold and silver mines are not to be

Considerations on Europe compared with the other parts of the world.

compared with those in the other quarters of the world; she has few precious stones, and, as to spices and perfumes, we well know from whence they come. But with regard to territory, if we consider what the Spaniards, the English, the Portuguese, the French, and the Dutch possess in the other parts of the world, it may be said; that the dominions of the European powers are equal, if not superior to Asia; and, if it does not contain so many people within its own limits, yet it commands more; and, in consequence of their trade, the Europeans enjoy all that nature has bestowed on the other parts of the world.

*Revival
and pro-
gress of the
trade of
Europe.*

The trade of Europe has, in a course of ages, undergone great alterations. Upon the fall of the Roman empire, it seemed to be, in some measure, extinguished, but soon revived among the Saxons, who, when they became masters of this island, established a great maritime power here, which did not continue long, the Danes becoming masters of this country. After some ages, commerce and maritime power retired southward, and were, in a manner, engrossed by the Italian states, particularly by the Venetians and Genoese, who shared the traffic of the East. In the thirteenth century, several free cities in Germany began to league together for the support of their trade, and made their confederacy known to the world by the title of the Hanseatic League. As their trade acquired them immense wealth and power, so it rendered them haughty and insolent, which, with other concurring circumstances, at length brought on their ruin; for in the fifteenth century the Portuguese perfected a new route to the East Indies by the Cape of Good Hope; and about the same time the Spaniards discovered America, which threw the trade of Europe, and its chief naval power, into the hands of those nations, who, if they had known how to cultivate and use them with moderation, might not only have raised it higher, but made it more durable than it proved. But the boundless ambition, and cruel oppression of the Spaniards, animated the United Provinces to throw off their yoke, and engaged them and the English to share in those riches, which were the source of the Spanish power; and this gave rise to the maritime powers. The progress of the Dutch from this time, in commerce and naval power, was amazingly rapid; for in the space of about half a century, from having scarce any ships at all, they came to have more than all Europe together. Since that time, Great Britain, by extending her

commerce and multiplying her colonies, has raised her maritime force to an equality, and now even to a great degree beyond the Dutch. The French too have for some years past not only raised a considerable maritime force, but extended their traffic into most parts of the world : for though the three last general wars, in a great measure, ruined their navy, yet we experienced by the last war, that they had greatly raised it again, and carried their commerce to a pitch beyond all apprehension ; and, whatever disadvantages they lately sustained in either, they now seem to be in a fair way of retrieving them : so that the maritime affairs of Europe have in the last and present century suffered a very great change, though probably they may suffer a greater before the present century is expired. The like attention to commerce and maritime power has, within these sixty years, appeared in almost every other nation in Europe. The Swedes and Danes have set up East India companies, and the Russians have opened a new and beneficial traffic, as well on the Caspian as on the Black Sea. The house of Austria has shewed a great desire of reviving the ancient commerce of the Low Countries. The Genoese not long since have erected a company of assurances, to encourage their subjects to venture upon long voyages, and, if possible, to recover their ancient reputation, as a maritime power. Nay, even the Spaniards themselves, who, in this respect, have slept for such a number of years, have at length opened their eyes, and erected some companies, and established some capital manufactures for the encouragement and extension of trade throughout their European and American dominions. Whence it is plain, that the navigation and shipping of the Europeans in general, are, within these last sixty years, greatly increased, and now in a very prosperous condition.

That nation which augments its commerce and maritime power to the greatest extent, bids fairest to give law to the rest. Thus, for instance, if the house of Bourbon should ever acquire as great a proportion of trade and naval power as either of the maritime powers, by which name they are at present distinguished, this would be an acquisition of much more consequence, than any they have hitherto made in point of territories or dominion. It is, therefore, the interest of the maritime powers to sustain their characters in that respect at all events, since by this means only they can preserve their independency, protect their subjects wherever they may be settled or dispersed, and

*Superiority
of one
European
nation over
another, by
trade and
naval
power.*

assist their allies, notwithstanding the efforts and ambitious designs of any aspiring neighbour. We need not wonder then at a common notion which prevails, as if we had a right to prescribe to some other nations the bounds of their naval greatness. What has been here said in relation to trade and commerce, may answer the end expected from it in an historical light, and enable us, in some measure, to judge of the nature, extent, and comparative strength of what is styled maritime power. We see and know, that whatever state or power is possessed of an extensive commerce, may have a proportionate naval force, the effects of which will render her considerable; yet it is requisite to know how this happens, and why the strength and dominion of a maritime power is firmer and more durable than that which arises from a great extent of territory, multitudes of subjects, or rich and fruitful countries.

Trade is certainly the strength and happiness of a nation, let the form of its government be what it will; because it introduces industry and arts, by which the manners of a people are civilized, even from the greatest savageness and brutality. Nor is it the number of subjects only, but the number of useful subjects, that is, trading subjects, that make a state powerful; for commerce introduces property, and without security in that respect, the inducements to pursue trade will flag; but with security, it will thrive and prosper, and wherever this security is thoroughly established, and wisely cherished and promoted, it will draw after it an inconceivable flux of people.

Hence we may easily assign the true causes of the long duration of republics renowned for their trade; such as Tyre and Carthage in ancient times, the Venetians and Genoese in later ages. It is almost impossible, that a nation active and industrious in commerce, and consequently rich and populous, and living under a mild government, should not exert a greater force when employed in attacking others, and have much greater resources in case of being attacked herself, than other states that are defective in those advantages: whence it will appear, how the states of Holland rose to such a great power in so short a time, and how her subjects have been able to thrive and grow opulent under taxes and impositions, which must have beggared them in any other situation than that of a trading republic. Add to this, that trade quite changes the comparative strength of states and kingdoms;

doms; because, wherever it resides, it creates so many and so great advantages, and begets such relations and connections, as render a trading country infinitely superior to her neighbours, who are differently circumstanced: for such a state, if on the continent, can fortify her great towns, so as to resist a power ten times stronger, in respect to people; she can maintain, if requisite, great numbers of regular troops, and on emergency hire more of her neighbours, besides what she may be able to do by the help of her maritime force. Hence arises that great strength, or real power, shewn by trading republics, when attacked either by ambitious princes, or even by powerful confederates. Thus the Venetians have often been too hard for the Turks; the Genoese for the most powerful princes in Italy; and, in earlier times, the Lubeckers for the greatest powers in the North. Hence the famous league of Cambray, which was formed for the destruction of the state of Venice in 1509, came to nothing, though the greatest princes of that time engaged in it, and though the Venetians themselves were guilty of some indiscretions, and though also they had been much exhausted by former wars. Thus, in like manner, the famous confederacy between France and Great Britain against Holland in 1672, proved abortive, though, at the first, even the Dutch themselves thought their affairs desperate; but their love of liberty animated them to exert themselves to the utmost, and their commerce furnished them with the means of getting tolerably out of the war. Nor has trade only a great influence on the particular affairs of nations separately considered, being almost the sole cause of a comparative difference in the strength of most of the powers of Europe, but is also of unspeakable advantage to the European quarter of the globe in general: it frees us from the apprehensions of being over-run by those barbarous empires which the Mohammedan religion has established in the world, and likewise brings us every thing that is rich and costly, every thing that is curious and estimable, even from the remotest quarters of the earth; so that to trade alone, all is due in this part of the world. In a word, it is to commerce that the people of Europe owe their freedom and independency, their learning and arts, their extensive colonies abroad, and their riches at home; and, above all, that naval power which so much surpasses any thing of the same kind in other parts of the world, and whatever was attempted in that way in former ages.

*European
balance of
power.*

The reciprocal connections between nations resulting from trade, have quite altered the state of things, and produced, within these two or three centuries past, a kind of new system in Europe, by which every state is led to have a much greater concern than formerly for what may happen to another. In former ages, a quarrel in the North could only have affected the North; but in the last century things were totally altered. Both the English and Dutch sent fleets into the Baltic, upon the quarrel that happened between the Swedes and Danes, a little before the Restoration of Charles II. Not long after this, the crown of Sweden became a contracting party in the famous triple alliance for maintaining the peace of Europe, preserving the Spanish Low Countries, and setting bounds to the power of France. After the Revolution, towards the close of the reign of king William, both the maritime powers sent their fleets again into the Baltic, with the same view and the same success; and the like has been done more than once since. In all those cases the pretence was the love of justice, and a punctual performance of treaties, in which there was somewhat of truth; but the real design was, to prevent those inconveniences which must have befallen the maritime powers, if either Sweden or Denmark had been undone by those wars. May it not, therefore, be truly said, that the balance of power, in the strict sense of that phrase, was created by trade, and must continue to be the object more especially of trading countries, so long as they preserve their commerce and freedom? Whenever any power in Europe, therefore, attempts to oppress another, or betrays a design of increasing its own strength by weakening or conquering its neighbour, other potentates are ready to interpose; from a quick sense, not only of the inconveniences that must arise from the incroachments made by such a power, but from the just apprehensions that these must prove prejudicial to commerce in general, and to that of several nations in particular. Whence it appears, that the balance of power is not an empty name, or a chimerical thing, but a just and significant expression, though a new and figurative one: for the intention is, to preserve the several governments of Europe in their present condition, and prevent any in particular from acquiring such a measure of power, as may be dangerous or fatal to those reciprocal interests before observed; which, as they took rise from, are absolutely necessary to the continuance of commerce; as, indeed, any attempts there-
upon

upon must be felt by every nation that has a share of trade to preserve. Now, it follows, that it is the interest of all the powers of Europe to support each other's independency, and prevent whatever has the appearance of universal monarchy, or the introducing the influence of one court over the greatest part of the rest; because this must be detrimental to the whole, and injurious to the freedom, learning, arts, manufactures, and commerce of Europe in general. Without, therefore, urging more on this head, it appears, that peace and good neighbourhood, the encouragement of arts and sciences, and the pursuit of manufactures and commerce, as they are agreeable to the interest of every particular state, so they are best for the whole; and would contribute to render every particular country of Europe infinitely more populous, and the people in all countries much more happy, than any endeavours to aggrandize particular families at the expence of the human species.

As Europe is now the only part of the world that is justly renowned for being the emporium in which all the trade, as it were, of the other parts centers, it will not be improper to pass also in review its commercial correspondence with the other three parts particularly.

Respecting Africa, its inhabitants, Egypt excepted, being mostly barbarians, such as the Moors and Mohammedans on the north and north-east part, and the Ethiopians on the north-east, or the mere savages and Negroes of the south and west parts, they all take no great quantities of merchandizes from Europe: they take very little indeed, in comparison of the returns made to Europe in exchange. The European goods sent to Africa are such as the Moors of the coast on the south shores of the Mediterranean sea take off, which consist chiefly in some English and French woollen and linen manufactures, and great quantities of toys and baubles; in return for which, Europe receives from that side of Africa far more than an equivalent in corn, salt, almonds, wax, copper, and a large quantity of very valuable drugs. From the coast of Africa, on the side of the ocean west, and on the side of the Indian or Ethiopian-seas east, Europe receives annually an immense treasure, either brought immediately to them, or carried by the European merchants in their own ships, and for their own account to America, or elsewhere; and this is properly the European trade, and consists of gold, elephants teeth, slaves, and drugs. By these articles (the quantity and value of which is infinitely

Commerce of Europe relatively to the other quarters of the world.

great,

great, considering that a great part of them is procured by the exchange of mere toys and trifles, scarce worth naming) the balance of the commerce between Europe and Africa is greatly to the advantage of the former; and that so far, that it is mighty extraordinary and unaccountable that the several maritime nations of Europe do not extend that commerce to a far greater degree; which, it is manifest, might be done with the greatest ease, and to such a height as, perhaps, might equal all the present improvements by colonies and plantations in America, many of which are remote, dangerous, and unhealthy, liable to certain charge, to disaster, and miscarriage: whereas Africa is near hand, every way equal in fertility, superior in its productions, the trade safe, the country in many parts extremely healthy, the people tractable, and the returns immensely rich, and doubtless abounding, if we could once carry our traffic into the center of this great and populous country, with an infinite variety of commercial articles, which the Europeans, at present, are absolutely strangers to. These particulars have been already discussed in our general account of Africa.

America is to be next considered with respect to Europe. This is often reckoned by far the largest country of the four into which the world is generally divided; and, if we may give credit to the measurement of some geographers, it is equal to the other three, and beyond them all, perhaps, in its extent. And it is found, by the experience of commerce, to be infinitely beyond them all in its produce, either on its surface, or from its bowels; for as to manufactures, and the labour of the people, America being unimproved, and the people therein mostly unemployed, that part is not scarce begun: so that Europe and Asia, in this respect, go infinitely beyond it. What may be the consequence hereafter, we would not conjecture. As the land of America is the property of Europe, so is the commerce; and all the wealth of the country passes yearly away, like a tribute, to the several parts of Europe to which the various parts of America belong. And though it is true, that the wealth of America goes away as a tribute to Europe, yet it is also true, that it goes thither by way of commerce too, and in return for the manufactures of Europe, which are sent to them in America for their supply. In a word, the Europeans receive the whole product of the country, and send the Americans, in lieu thereof, a few cloaths to wear; and these very cloaths are chiefly for the use of the Europeans settled

ttled there for maintaining the possession as lords of the country; and who, having dispossessed the native inhabitants, and driven them into corners, rule them with a rod of iron, especially the Spaniards. The produce of America is a prodigy of wealth, immeasurable in its quantity, and inexpressible in its value. It consists chiefly of gold, silver, pearl, emeralds, hides of beasts, tobacco, sugar, cacao, cochineal, indigo, peltry, drugs, spice, cotton, dyers woods, fish, and sundry other articles. These are returned to Europe in its proper divisions, thus: the gold chiefly to Portugal from the Brasils, which is afterwards disseminated in the course of the Portugal trade, to divers other parts of Europe; the silver to Spain, from the shores of the South Seas, and from Mexico and Peru, which also is dispersed throughout the other parts of Europe, in the channels of the Spanish commerce. The fish from Newfoundland is sent to various parts of Europe; and the other articles, which are no inconsiderable object, are always disposed of to great profit by their respective proprietors. Upon the whole of this commerce, it is certain, that Europe also is the gainer, and that to an excess scarce to be conceived; the balance being so great in its favour, that it has, together with the African wealth, immensely enriched and aggrandized all the European nations that have any great concern in these capital branches of commerce.

Asia is likewise a country extremely rich in its product, though, in that respect, not be compared with either of the former two; but it is rendered so by the prodigious numbers, and inimitable diligence, industry, and application of its inhabitants, who are so circumstanced, that they call for little from any other part of the world; and they are so indefatigable, assiduous, and ingenious, in the mechanic and manufactural arts, so amply supplied by nature with materials, and their workmanship is so extremely cheap, that they are able to fill the whole world with their manufactures and produce: by which means, the state of trade between Europe and Asia stands thus, as we have before, in some measure, observed, in treating of Africa in general: Europe calls for a great variety of goods from Asia, great quantities of which are dispersed into America and Africa, by way of barter and exchange for the productions of these parts of the world; so that although a considerable part of the silver that comes from America is sent to Asia for their produce and manufactures, yet, as silver is one of the plentiful productions of
America,

America, it is the same thing as the American bartering any other commodity for the Asiatic commodities; and, therefore, the trade of Asia cannot be so injurious to the wealth of Europe as some have been wont to apprehend. For, let it be supposed, that every ounce of silver that was ever produced in America, centered in Europe, and was in circulation, it is to be questioned whether Europe would be ever the richer; and the comparative state of the riches of these European nations who shared in the American silver, would be the same as it is at present: the labour and manufactures of these nations in Europe would be so much dearer in their reciprocal barter and exchanges of produce and manufactures with each other, which would still keep up the same comparative equality, with respect to their riches. But if the riches of nations so much consist in the plenty of silver, as some are pleased to think, the immense quantity of wrought plate which is at present in Europe, demonstrates, that all the silver from America has not been sent to Asia: an immense quantity of it lies dead in these articles; and it may, perhaps, be questioned, whether these nations would be ever the richer, if all the wrought plate among them was coined into money, and preserved as long as the course of trade would permit, in their commercial circulation. If the trade of Asia, had, for a series of years, been so disadvantageous to Europe, as is by some suggested, it would certainly have greatly impoverished all these nations therein concerned, which does not appear to be the case: on the contrary, not only those who have been long interested in this trade, are zealous to preserve and increase it, but new powers are daily struggling to obtain some share of it, which they would hardly do if they were not convinced that this trade, upon the whole, is really beneficial to the respective potentates who are engaged in it. Add to this, that the peculiar policy of the Asiatics, in regard to the importation of silver from Europe, may deserve some consideration; for, though silver is a commodity which they take partly in barter for their produce and manufactures, yet, if we are rightly informed, this silver is not coined into money, and kept in circulation: no, to prevent this, the princes and great men not only turn a great deal into wrought plate, but bury under ground immense quantities; whereby they effectually prevent its coming into their commercial circulation, and consequently, by that means, prevent a rise in all the necessaries, even luxuries of life, and thereby

keep

keep the price of labour always low and at a stand; so that by this policy they can afford to sell their produce and manufactures cheaper than any other nation whatsoever; besides, it is said, that such is the policy of several of the governments in the East Indies, that their priests propagate a notion among the people, that the more silver they die possessed of, the happier they will be in a future state; which notion occasions the silver to be hoarded and buried, and thereby kept out of circulation to prevent any rise in the price of labour and commodities; and this is said to be the occasion of the surprising cheapness of all their produce and manufactures, when bought at first hand, in comparison to those of the richest European nations.

If this principle, upon examination, should be found to be good policy, may not the great paper-circulation of the kingdom of Great Britain in particular, which is occasioned by our national debts and taxes, deserve serious consideration? For, if paper circulation, by authority, will answer the end of coined money, the more paper there is in circulation by way of transfer, or otherwise, the more money there is, in effect, in circulation: and if so, do not our debts and taxes, in this respect, as well as in others, contribute to keep up the price of labour, and render our produce and manufactures proportionably dearer than otherwise they would be? Can any thing, therefore, more importantly concern the interests of our commerce, than the exonerating us from our national debts, and, in consequence thereof, from the payment of those taxes, which are appropriated for the payment of the interest and principal? For, when the whole debt shall be paid off, and all the paper effects thereby occasioned be annihilated, and consequently the public taxes abated, will not all merchandizes fall in their price? That this will prove the case, there are two reasons assignable; the first is, that when those paper effects, which have now the operation of money, are sunk, their operation must cease of course; for, as the value of commodities has risen by the increase of gold and silver within these hundred and fifty years, so would they of necessity fall in their price, if our gold and silver were considerably diminished; the consequence must be the same of that which has the operation of money. The second reason is very obvious; for goods that are taxed bear a price in proportion to the impost upon them. When they are free from this incumbrance, there can be no reason why they

Observations on paper circulation, as relating to the premises.

they should not come to their natural value: for instance, if the duty on malt be six pence per bushel, when this duty is taken off, malt, of course, should be six pence a bushel cheaper than before. The same must be said of all other commodities that are taxed.

These observations may give some idea of whatever is necessary to be considered in regard to Europe in general; but as they will more fully appear by descending to particulars, we shall now take a view of the different countries and states of Europe, proceeding from west to east, and beginning with Spain.

S E C T. II.

Of Spain.

*Situation,
bounda-
ries, and
extent of
Spain.*

SPAIN is situate on the most western part of all the continent of Europe, and is encompassed on every side by the sea, except on the side of France, from which it is separated by a continued ridge of mountains called the Pyrenees. On the east and south it is bounded by the Mediterranean, the streights of Gibraltar, and part of the Atlantic Ocean; on the west by the same ocean; and on the north by the sea called the Bay of Biscay, and the Pyrenees. Its scite is in the temperate zone, between the 36th and 44th degrees of north latitudes, and, consequently, under the sixth, seventh, and eighth climates; and in length it extends from the 10th degree of west to the 3d degree of east longitude, that is 13 degrees from east to west, and nine degrees from north to south.

Divisions.

This kingdom is divided into fourteen provinces, viz. Galicia, Asturias, Biscay, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, New Castile, Old Castile, Leon, Estramadura, Andalusia, Granada, and Murcia.

*Soil and
produce.*

The soil of Spain has been misrepresented as dry and barren by several writers, who appear to have had no knowlege of it. We may even affirm, that its most mountainous and barren parts do produce something for use. Some are covered with stately trees of several sorts, either for timber or fuel. The rocky parts abound with wild thyme, marjoram, and other aromatic herbs, which serve to feed a great number of sheep and goats, and give their milk and flesh a more exquisite flavour than any which are fed on the richest pastures; and if these happen to be scorched with too much heat in summer, the cattle are driven

driven down to the sides of the hills, where they find plenty of those herbs, and meadow-grounds well watered by the great number of rivers with which the country abounds; so that at the worst, they never want a sufficient quantity of herbage to supply their numerous flocks. Other mountainous and rocky lands produce quantities of a famed plant called by them esparto, of which they make all kinds of ropes and other cordage. The Spanish wheat is inferior to none, if not the very best in Europe, and the common product of it more than the natives can consume. Their barley is very good, and in such plenty, that it is the common grain for their horses and mules; instead of oats, which are here very scarce; and the straw of it serves them likewise instead of hay, of which they make hardly any throughout the kingdom. Wine they likewise have in such abundance, that the poorest people drink it; and few are unacquainted with the goodness and great variety of it. As for fruits, they not only have the different sorts in much higher perfection, which either naturally grow, or which we cultivate with so much pains here in England, but also many others, which, with all our art, cannot be brought by us to any tolerable ripeness, and with which we are more easily supplied from them. The same may be said of their herbs, flowers, and medicinal plants, which, though excellent in their kinds, grow most of them wild here, when, in other places, they could not be produced without great art and industry.

Their oil, wax, and honey, are allowed to be as good as any in the world. Few countries exceed this for plenty, goodness, and variety of fowl, both wild and tame; and of four-footed game, as deer, both red and fallow, hares, rabbits, and particularly wild boars. As for their tame swine, those who have had experience of it, allow that the Spanish bacon exceeds even that of Westphalia. Their sheep are most exquisite in taste, but they are still more valuable for their incomparable wool, which exceeds any in Europe. Above all, we must not forget their horses, greatly famed for their exceeding celerity. The Spaniards were, from the earliest ages, very curious in their breeding of good horses, and very dexterous in the use and management of them, especially in the field. As for the other services of that useful creature, such as carrying, drawing, plowing, they have great numbers of mules, which seem much better fitted by nature for such drudgery, as well as for going over the most craggy and

Other valuable articles and commodities for which Spain is remarkable.

mountainous parts of the country; being both larger, stronger, and surer-footed, than the horses, though not near so swift: many of them are sixteen, and some even seventeen hands high, and carry very heavy burdens over such rocky parts, and with such ease and steadiness, as is quite astonishing to those who are not accustomed to them.

*Silk and
other ma-
nufactures.*

The silken manufacture is at present so encouraged in Spain, that, we are told, above a million of people are employed in feeding, gathering, and curing silk-worms; and in spinning, weaving, and making all kinds of silks. The same may be said of their cotton, hemp, and flax, which likewise grow here in large quantities, and employ a proportionable number of hands; not to mention their scarlet dye, saffron, sugar, pitch, rosin, and other commodities that grow above ground.

*Mines, mi-
nerals, &c.*

If we dive into the bowels of the earth, we shall find gold, silver, quicksilver (which latter they send in large quantities into the West Indies), lead, copper, and excellent iron, the best of which is dug from the mountains of Biscay, and is sent all over Europe, as exceeding any other in goodness. They have also great plenty of sulphur, alum, calamine, and other minerals; as likewise of jet, agate, cornelian, granate, crystal, marble, alabaster, jasper, and other stones. As to their gold mines, it must be owned, that they have quite neglected them ever since they have been able to draw such immense quantities of that metal from America. But anciently they had it in as great plenty, or much greater, out of their own.

*Salubrity of
the air.*

The healthfulness of this country may be gathered, not only from its excellent situation and serene sky, but likewise from the stoutness and longevity of its ancient inhabitants, whilst they gave themselves up to a habit of exercise and temperance; in which last they always did, and do still excel all other nations in Europe.

Having thus far run through all that need be said in general concerning this country, we shall now take a view of it, with respect to each of its particular kingdoms and provinces, in the same order as we have before ranged them.

*Province of
Galicia.*

The kingdom of Galicia is washed on the west by the ocean, on the north by the Cantabrian Sea, or Bay of Biscay; on the east it borders upon Asturias and Leon; and on the south upon Portugal, from which it is parted next the sea by the river Minho. This small kingdom produces wheat, millet, all kinds of herbs, plenty of
cattle,

cattle, especially hogs, whose bacon far exceeds that of Westphalia; strong mules, good horses, though not large; but it is most famed for its noble wines, particularly that of Ribadavia. It has, besides, plenty of firing, and of timber for building houses and ships, with quarries of fine marble, and some flax, of which a pretty good sort of linen is made.

Corunna, in this province, called by our seamen the *Corunna* Groyne, is a famed ancient sea-port, on the Bay of Biscay. By its situation, it is well fenced against the winds, and against the enemy, by two strong castles. It stands between the two famed promontories of Finisterre and Ortegal, and is wealthy, being a place of considerable trade.

The principality of Asturias lies on the north side *Province of* along the Bay of Biscay, and borders on the west on Ga- *Asturias.* licia; on the south it is divided from Castile and Leon by a ridge of mountains, called the Asturian mountains; on the coast it reaches to the port Llanes, now Santillana, where it joins a narrow slip of land belonging to Old Castile, which runs into the sea between Asturias and Biscay. The whole length of Asturias is about one hundred and thirty-five miles, and breadth sixty; and it is generally divided into two parts or districts, the one called Asturias de Oviedo, and the other Santillana. But it is farther subdivided into seven merindades, or liberties, besides a little province called Liebana, about twenty-seven miles long, and twelve broad. It is one of the most craggy and mountainous parts of Spain, excessive high, and almost inaccessible. The mountains are called Europæ, and are in full front of the sea, but produce plenty of corn, wine, fruit, cattle, and game. This country gives a title to the eldest son of Spain, who is styled, prince of the Asturias.

The lordship of Biscay, as generally taken, is divided *Province* into three parts, viz. Biscay, properly so called, Guipus- *of Biscay.* coa, and Alava. The whole is bounded on the west by that slip of Old Castile which reaches to the sea; the ridge of the Asturian mountains branching from the Pyrenees, parts it from Old Castile on the south-east, as the same mountains do again from Navarre, and the river Cidaro from France on the east; and all the north side is washed by the Cantabrian Sea, called commonly the Bay of Biscay. The country is mountainous and barren, scarce producing any thing but timber for shipping, millet seed, and

*Bilbao and
St. Seba-
stian.*

fruit, of which last cyder is made in plenty; but its greatest treasure lies in its inexhaustible mines of iron, which is reckoned the best in the world, and is transported thence into all parts. Here are whole towns where all sorts of iron-works are carried on, especially swords and fire-arms, very elegant, and in great quantities. Bilbao, in Biscay Proper, though no city, is now the capital of Biscay, being a place of great trade, by reason of its good port, small vessels coming up to the mole, and others of greater bulk lying farther out. The greatest export here is of the fine wool brought mostly from Old Castile, and of exquisite iron, chiefly in bars. The town stands six miles distant from the sea, on the river Ibaichaval. St. Sebastian, in the district of Guipuscoa, is another noted port on the Bay of Biscay, nine miles from Fuentarabia, and almost inclosed with rivers, which fall into the sea in its neighbourhood, particularly that which they call the Branco. The mole will receive two hundred ships.

*Province of
Navarre.*

The kingdom of Navarre is divided from France on the north by the Pyrenees, which also cut it into two parts, distinguished into Upper and Lower; the former, much the larger, is on the Spanish side, and belongs to that crown; the other, beyond these mountains, is annexed to the crown of France. Spanish Navarre borders upon Biscay and Old Castile on the west, on Castile and Arragon on the south, and eastward upon Arragon. Its length is about ninety miles from north to south, and about eighty in breadth from east to west. It is divided into the five districts of Pampelona, Tudela, Estela, Olite, and Sangüessa, which are parted by prodigious high mountains, yet yield good corn, and other grain, wine, oil, honey, fruits, and herbs, and afford plenty of food and pasture for their cattle, besides an infinite number of fowl, both wild and tame. These mountains produce metals and minerals, and had formerly several rich mines of gold and silver, though now either exhausted or neglected. Here are likewise abundance of fine springs, hot baths, and other medicinal waters.

*Province of
Arragon.*

The kingdom of Arragon is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, which divide it from France; on the west it has Navarre, and New and Old Castile; on the south the kingdom of Valentia, and the principality of Catalonia. The whole length from north to south is two hundred and ten miles, and breadth between one hundred and one hundred and twenty. The country is mountainous, but full of delightful and extraordinary fertile vales, which produce

produce great plenty of wheat, wine, oil, saffron, and fruits of the most delicious kind. It also breeds great numbers of cattle, and abounds with all sorts of fowl, both wild and tame. The mountains are said to have mines of gold, silver, and other metals, but little is made of any of them, except iron. Here are likewise very considerable rivers, and plenty of good fish. The most remarkable of the rivers is the Turio, which fertilizes a great part of the country, not by an overflow like that of the Nile, but by its slow and gentle course, which gives opportunity to the husbandmen and gardeners to cut channels from it to water their lands, insomuch that we are told, their trees will bear fruits three, and often four times a-year; and not only in great plenty, but in such variety, that they reckon no less than four hundred sorts produced in this kingdom. Their orchards, gardens, and pasture-grounds, are likewise much admired for their continual verdure and fertility. In a word, Arragon is, on all these accounts, as well as for the extraordinary serenity of its air, compared to Egypt. The Mediterranean helps very much to enrich the country, both by foreign traffic, and the great quantity of fish which is caught on those coasts.

Saragossa, the metropolis of this kingdom, is an ancient and opulent city, seated almost in the heart of it, on the bank of the Ebro, and in a fertile and delightful plain, watered with three other rivers, the Xalon, Gallego, and Guerva. It is of an oblong form, is rich and populous, and carries on a great commerce, with a considerable number of trades and manufactures, both within and without the walls.

Catalonia is bounded on the north by the Pyrenees, by which it is parted from the province of Roussillon in France, on the west by Arragon, and a small part of Valencia; from the first of these it is separated by the rivers Noguera and Mataruna, and a ridge of hills, and from the latter by the river Genia. On the south and east it is washed by the Mediterranean, and has many convenient sea-ports along those shores. The inland is a mixture of plains and mountains; that part next to France is the most mountainous, but farther in, it abounds with delightful and spacious plains. The climate, which reaches from 41 to 43 deg. of north latitude, and from 1 deg. to 30 deg. 20 min. east longitude, is therefore neither so hot as Andalusia, nor so cold as Asturia and the north part of Spain, being moreover sheltered on the north by the Pyrenees, and on the east by the sea. This temperature,

türe, joined to the many streams and rivers with which the country abounds, makes it exceeding fertile and delightful. Its products are much the same with those of Arragon, besides quarries of marble, alabaster, and jasper-stone, coral taken out of the sea, salt, and many other commodities.

Barcelona. Barcelona is the capital of this province, and is inferior to few in Europe that are not courts of princes. It is pleasantly seated on the Mediterranean coasts, a little below the gulf of Lyons, and opens to the sea in a beautiful semicircle, which, together with its eminence and castle, and the beauty of its churches and other sumptuous edifices, affords a most delightful prospect to the ships that sail by or to it, especially as it stands between two considerable rivers, the Lobregat and Bezes, which pay their tribute to that sea on each side of it. The coast it stands upon is a good safe road, and the port, though rather too small, has rendered it a place of great trade, especially when Indian commodities were brought from Turkey and Egypt through the Mediterranean. Its situation is on a spacious plain, at the foot of the mountain Monjuyque; and its territory is stored with all necessaries for sustenance and delight. This province has also some other towns and cities of considerable note, as Tartagona, commodiously situate near the coast of the Mediterranean, with a safe harbour for small ships; Tortosa, situate on the bank of the Ebro, not far from the sea, with a good bay formed by that river; Vicque, pleasantly situate, thirty-six miles north from Barcelona, in a kind of peninsula, made by the rivers Ter and Noguerra, which almost encompass it; and Cardona, sixty miles distant from Barcelona, and remarkable for a mountain of salt near it, which yields an annual revenue of thirty thousand pieces of eight. This salt is transparent, and, when powdered, is exceeding white. All these places enjoy a very fertile and delightful territory.

*Other
places of
note.*

*Province of
Valentia.* The kingdom of Valentia lies on the east, along the Mediterranean, facing the islands of Majorca and Ivica, except only a small part towards Catalonia, which is parted from it by the river Cenja; on the north it has the kingdom of Arragon; on the west New Castile and Murcia, and the small track of it which runs towards the south, bordering also upon the kingdom of Murcia. The greatest length of Valentia is about two hundred and ten miles, and its greatest breadth about forty-eight. The whole kingdom is so delightful as to be compared to an earthly

earthly paradise, being universally allowed to be the most charming part of Spain, and by many even of all the world. The surprising excellence of its soil and climate is the cause that the whole country is filled with noblemen's and gentlemen's seats; and where the land is not employed for the purposes of pleasure, it produces immense plenty of corn, wine, oil, honey, flax, and all kind of herbage; also flowers and fruit in great variety, the trees being always covered with verdure and blossoms. To all which we may add, that the sugar, rice, and silk, it produces, one year with another, is reckoned to amount to three millions of pieces of eight. The mines of gold, silver, and other metals, besides great quantity and variety of precious stones, which here formerly amounted to an immense value, are now wholly neglected. Here is also abundance of alum, the best and finest white lime, and plenty of cochineal.

Valentia, the noble and ancient capital of this kingdom, *Valentia.* is seated on the shady banks of the river Turio, over which it has five stately bridges, and stands about two miles from the sea. It lies in 39 deg. 20 min. of north latitude, and about 15 min. east longitude. Its distance from Madrid, the present metropolis of Spain, is about one hundred and eighty miles south-east; from Barcelona, south-west, about the same number; and south from Saragossa about one hundred and thirty-five. Its sea-port, named Grao, which stands on the Mediterranean, about a mile and a half from the city, furnishes it with every thing either for conveniency or delight, the sea supplying it with an extraordinary variety of fish, the neighbouring lake of Albufera, or *little sea*, with great abundance of water fowl and fresh-water fish; and the fertile country about, with the greatest plenty of corn, wine, oil, fruits, herbs, and other provisions. It is enriched by the number of quality and gentry which live in it, by its great commerce, and the variety of manufactures that are carried on, especially the woollen, so that the cloth that is made here is reckoned the finest in all Spain.

Alicant is another famous city of this kingdom, and a *Alicant.* sea-port on the Mediterranean, distant from Murcia, towards the north-east, forty-two miles, sixty south from Valentia, and about two hundred and ten from Madrid. It is a place of great trade, by reason of its commodious harbour, and well known to the English, for the delicate wines and delicious fruits which they bring from thence.

*Province
of New
Castile.*

The kingdom of New Castile is bounded on the north by Old Castile, from which it is every way divided by mountains, which are only known by the names of the countries they run through. On the east it is parted from Estramadura, by another chain of them called Guadaloupe and La Sarena; on the south from Andalusia, by those called Sierra Morena, and by an imaginary line from Murcia; and on the west by the river Segura, and the mountains of Almanza and Requena from Valentia; and from Arragon by those of Maya, Daroka, and Molina. The length of this kingdom from south to north, is about one hundred and eighty miles, and pretty near the same in breadth, where widest, but its figure is irregular in the latter. The country being all inland, and surrounded with such high mountains, which contract the sun's rays, as it were, into a focus, and, at the same time, suppress the free passage of the cooling sea-breezes, its climate is consequently hotter in summer, and colder in winter, than those which lie along the sea-coasts, under the same latitude. It is notwithstanding very healthy, and its soil generally fertile.

Madrid.

Madrid is the capital of this kingdom, and at present of all Spain. It is situated on a chain of little hills, surrounded with high mountains, and is about seven miles in circumference, without walls or fortifications, but containing several grand streets and spacious squares. There are three royal palaces here, called the Palace Royal, the Casa del Campo, and the Buen Retiro. The other places of considerable note in New Castile are,

Toledo.

Toledo, built on a high, steep, and craggy rock, almost inaccessible on all sides, and made much more so by the course of the river Tagus, which encompasses it almost round, and over which it has two noble bridges. Here are a great number of merchants, tradesmen, and artificers, especially in the silk and woollen manufactures, which two branches alone are said to employ ten thousand hands. Toledo is about thirty-six miles distant from Madrid.

Talavera.

Talavera de la Reyna is delightfully seated on the river Tagus, thirty-six miles west from Toledo, and is much famed for its woollen manufacture of stuffs, and particularly for an extraordinary kind of fine earthen ware that is made at it.

*Province of
Old Castile.*

The kingdom of Old Castile was formerly part of the Roman Tarracoenensis, and borders all the way on the south to New Castile, from which it is divided by a ridge
of

of mountains, which change their names according to the places of note they pass through, as Motina, Sigüenza, Segovia, &c. by that chain of them which is called Sierra de Tablada, and by those of Pico and Banos, from Estramadura, on the west; and by those of Avala and Perina, with the little rivers of Carrío, Pisuerga, and Heban, from Leon on the north-west. It is parted again on the north from Asturias and Biscay by another ridge of hills branching out from the Pyrenees; only in the center, between these two provinces, it has a narrow slip of land which reaches quite to the Bay of Biscay; lastly, on the east, the Ebro and mountains of Doña, for a considerable length, part it from Navarre and Arragon. The greatest extent of this province from north to south, reaches from 40 deg. 10 min. to 43 deg. 15 min. of latitude, and from 1 deg. 30 min. to 4 deg. 10 min. of west longitude; that is, about one hundred and eighty miles, and near about the same number from east to west; that is, both ways taken where largest, for its figure is very irregular, and not near answerable in other parts. The climate here differs somewhat from that of New Castile, on account of the country being more mountainous, which makes the several parts vary, according to their situation, the vallies being excessive hot, and the upper grounds proportionably cold and bleak: but, upon the whole, the soil is generally good. Snow covers the tops of the mountains here all the summer, and it is carried away and sold in the towns, as is usual through all Spain, to cool their wine.

Valladolid, in this kingdom, stands on the bank of the river Pisuerga, on a pleasant rising ground, and yields a noble prospect by this its fine situation and grand edifices. It is both populous and opulent by means of the woollen manufacture, which is here the best and most considerable in all Spain.

The kingdom of Leon, properly so called, is now *Province of Leon.* bounded by the Asturian mountains; on the east it has Old Castile, from which it is divided by the mountains of Pernia, and the rivers Carrío and Pisuerga, as far as the Ebro, then by those of Heban and Reganno, till you come to the mountains Bonilla de la Sierra; on the south, the mountains of Bannos, and another ridge, divide it from Estramadura; and on the west, the rivers of Agueda, Duero, and a chain of mountains part it from Portugal, as does the same ridge of hills continued from Galicia. The whole extent of Leon from north to south is about one hundred and twenty miles, and from east to west about

ninety. The river Duero runs almost across the middle of it, leaving one half on the north, and the other on the south. As this kingdom lies in the same climate and latitude with that of Old Castile, to which it is contiguous, and is, like it, intermingled with ridges of high hills, capacious vallies, and champain plains, which occasion pretty near the same degrees of heat and cold, dry and moist; its soil and temperature differ very little from it. The natives are here also robust, hardy, laborious, brave, temperate, and lovers of learning. The mountains have some minerals, but chiefly quarries of excellent marble and veined alabaster, jasper-stones, and some others of greater value, as turquoises, garnets, amethysts, and the like.

*Province
of Estramadura.*

The province of Estramadura is divided from Portugal, or from the Portuguese Estramadura, on the west, by the rivers Elya, Caya, and some others of less note; on the north it joins to the kingdom of Leon, without any noted mountains or rivers to part them; on the east the mountains of Banos, Pico, and Guadaloupe, divide it from Old and New Castile; and on the south, it is parted from Andalusia by the chain of hills called Sierra Morena. The rivers Tajo and Guadiana, running through it from east to west, divide it into three parts; the most northern is that which is beyond the Tajo; the next is between that and the Guadiana, and the last is that which is south of the Guadiana. The length of the whole province, from north to south, is one hundred and fifty miles; and breadth, from east to west, about one hundred and twenty. The climate, indeed, is extremely hot, and somewhat sultry, being mostly inland, and wanting those cooling gales which the hills and sea communicate to the adjacent provinces; but, in all other respects, it may be justly reckoned the pleasantest and most fertile not only in all Spain, but, perhaps, in the world. For an evidence of which we need but instance in the celebrated plain called La Vera de Plasencia, of which it might suffice to say, that several of the ancients placed the Elysian fields in it, as knowing of no place more delicious and beautiful. This noble plain is about thirty-six miles in length, and ten in breadth, and so sweetly delightful, that it invites great numbers of nobility and gentry to spend the summer in it. It has thirteen small towns or villages, and about five thousand houses, all beautifully situated, and neat, and all the rest is either covered with the greatest variety of fruit-trees which Europe affords, or beautifully variegated and disposed

posed into olive-groves, vineyards, gardens, orchards, meadows, and fields, watered with many pleasant springs and streams. Such is, in fine, the product of this valley, that of the territory of only four inconsiderable villages, out of the thirteen that are in it, the product is said to have amounted in one year, to one hundred and fifty tons of oil, five hundred and fifty of wine, sixty thousand bushels of chestnuts, an incredible quantity of wheat and other grain; whilst other parts of it yielded not only the like, or even larger quantities in proportion, of the same produce, besides fruits, flax, &c. and likewise abundance of silk, wax, honey, saffron, besides pasture, and great numbers of cattle.

The province of Andalusia is divided on the north, from Estramadura and New Castile, by the Sierra Morena mountains; on the east, from Portugal by the river Chanca, and from Algarve by the Guadiana; on the south it has the ocean, the mouth of the Straights, and part of the Mediterranean; and along the south-east it has the kingdom of Granada. No province in Spain exceeds this in fertility and commerce, and the latter is owing to its maritime situation and convenient harbours. Its great quantity of wine and oil is so extraordinary, as to be almost beyond credit. Its cattle also are numberless. Fine oranges, citrons, raisins, almonds, pomegranates, and figs, are the natural growth of this province. To all these articles we may add its great plenty of fine salt and sugar, and an excellent breed of horses.

*Province of
Andalusia.*

Seville, its capital, is situate on the river Guadalquivir, and in one of the most beautiful plains of Europe. Here is an India house for the regulation of their West India trade, a fine exchange and mint. Silk and silver stuffs are its most considerable manufactures, with those of soap and pottery ware. Without the city are salt-pits and quarries of marble. Along the river are many commodious keys, where ships of good burthen may safely lie. San Lucar de Barameda, about forty-five miles below Seville, serves it as a port. It was much more considerable than at present, before the Spanish West India fleets were allowed to set out from, and return to

Seville.

Cadiz, which is next in rank to the royal cities. Its situation for commerce is very advantageous, the spaciousness of the harbour, seated upon the ocean so near the Mediterranean, drawing thither a concourse of ships and merchants, to purchase the product of Spain, and, not long since, of the West Indies, which are now first brought

Cadiz.

to

to this place. There are in this province several other cities and towns of considerable note for trade and manufactures.

*Province
of Granada.*

The kingdom of Granada is divided on the north, from the province of Andalusia, by the mountains of Cazorra, Sierra Morena, Segura, and some others; on the east, another chain of mountains divides it from Murcia; on the south it is again contiguous to Andalusia, without any noted boundaries; and, on the west, it is bounded and washed by the Mediterranean. The whole length of it from east to west is about two hundred and ten miles, but the greatest breadth exceeds not seventy-two. This country besides those immense quantities of corn, wine, oil, fruit, cattle, game, and fish, which it has in common with the finest provinces in Spain, can boast that its most craggy mountains are every where covered with vines, fruit-trees in the highest perfection, and what would to some appear incredible, if not attested by several undoubted eye-witnesses, that many of its bunches of grapes, like those of the Promised Land, are obliged to be carried on a pole between two men; and some of them, we are assured from persons of veracity, have weighed forty pounds. Sugar is likewise cultivated here in great plenty, and exceeds any in Spain for fineness; and silk is manufactured in such quantities and great variety, as to be sufficient to serve the whole kingdom, besides what is exported. Those fields, hills, and other places which are reckoned the most barren, are covered with thyme, marjoram, lavender, and all other sorts of aromatic herbs and odoriferous shrubs; so that if we consider this province either with respect to its surprising fertility and plenty of all things for food and delight, or to the admirable prospect of its hills and dales, or the fragrantcy of its fruits and herbs, no country seems to approach nearer to the idea we have of an earthly paradise than this. If we add to all these, its excellent maritime situation, number of commodious harbours and ports, and its great exports and imports, the number and opulence of its cities, of which Malaga is the chief, we shall easily own that this little kingdom is one of the noblest and finest in all Spain. Near Antequera, in this province, is a famed salt-pit, three miles in length and near two in breadth, which supplies the whole territory with salt. About eight or nine miles from it is a spring, that dissolves the stone and brings it away by urine.

The

The kingdom of Murcia borders on the north upon New Castile, on the west it is parted from Granada and Andalusia by the mountains of Segura, and some others, which stretch themselves into the sea, and partly by the kingdom of Valentia. Its greatest length from north-west to south-east, is about one hundred miles, and its greatest breadth, from north-east to south-west, about seventy. Its climate is somewhat of the hottest; but the soil, though mountainous, is exceeding fertile, never failing but through extreme drought. But what makes its chief wealth is the great quantity of silk which is here made and exported, and employs the greatest number of hands. Round about the spacious and delightful plain, in which its capital of the same name is situate, are planted an infinite number of mulberry-trees, with the leaves of which the inhabitants feed as many worms as generally make every year two hundred and ten thousand pounds weight of silk.

*Province
of Murcia.*

Carthagena, in this province, is seated on the side of a hill, on the Mediterranean coast, on the mouth of the river Guadalentin, and is a commodious, as well as one of the most noted sea-ports in Spain. The harbour is well sheltered from storms by a small island called Escombrada. There is good plenty of fresh water on the shore, and the air here is so temperate in summer, and so mild in winter, that the trees are every where covered with leaves, blossoms, and fruit. Besides these productions of the earth on the surface, its bowels yield amethysts, garnets, agates, and other such precious stones.

*Cartha-
gena.*

We shall now pass from the description of Spain to its history, and, in this respect, it will not be improper to observe, that the Roman empire in this country lasted something more than four hundred years after the commencement of the Christian æra, and that the Spanish history is connected with the Roman for near six hundred, till that empire was utterly extinct. The Goths entered about the year 400. Himeric, with the Suevi and Alans, conquered Galicia about the year 308. These Suevi, who gave name to Galicia, subdued Portugal about the year 464. Requina, the son of Himeric, conquered Biscay, Andalusia, and took Saragossa and Tarragona in 488. Recaredo was king of Spain in 587, and called a cortes, at which prelates, as well as secular lords, assisted, and granted aids to the crown. After him came Witteric, to whom succeeded Gundemar, in 610. Sisenando was chosen king in 631, and called a cortes at Toledo. The Moors entered Spain about the year

*History of
Spain.*

year 680, consequently the Gothic government did not last three hundred years. Tarif Abenzarca came in 713.

The three principal northern nations which came here were the Vandals, from whom the province of Andalusia received its name; the Vandals went afterwards into Africa; the Suevi, who remained long in Galicia, and the Goths, who conquered the whole country, and held it upwards of two hundred years. The Goths possessed the whole continent of Spain, Mauritania in Africa, and Gallia Gothica, or that part of France which is now corruptly called Languedoc; but, in their turn, they gave place to the Moors or Arabs, whose dominion ceased when Pelayo was established in his throne. The Moors conquered all Spain except those mountainous parts, whither some bodies of resolute Christians fled for refuge. These, by degrees, planned and concerted measures to shake off the Arabic yoke. The first stand against them was made by the mountaineers of Asturias, who elected king the infant Don Pelayo, swearing the nobles over a shield, and crying out "Real! real!" This Pelayo was a Gothic prince by birth, so that, in some measure, he restored again the Gothic monarchy. He recovered Gijon and Leon, and his son got possession of part of Portugal, and of all Galicia. From this recovery of Leon came the race of the kings of Oviedo and Leon. The boldness and success of these Christians alarming the Arabs, they attacked them in their different strong holds, in order to cut off their communication one with another. But this produced a very different effect from what they expected. The Christians, to repel the danger that threatened them on every side at the same time, chose different heads in different places, who being separate one from the other in their governments, defended their subjects independently of one another. This necessary resolution gave rise to the different kingdoms in Spain. Such was their undoubted origin, though it is impossible to say at what exact period each kingdom rose, as there are no ancient monuments remaining sufficient to prove that point.

The first kingdom or monarchy that arose after the Moorish invasion, was that, as we have said, of Don Pelayo in the Asturias, an elective monarchy; and in proportion as the Asturian princes dislodged the Saracens of those lands and territories that lay nearest to them, they changed the style of their titles; being first called kings of Asturias, then of Oviedo, and lastly of Leon and Galicia,

Galicia, until they were incorporated with the kings of Castile, by the marriage of queen Donna Sancha Isabella, sister of king Don Bermudo III. its last prince, both of them descendents of king Don Alonzo V. who married the daughter of Ferdinand the Great, to whom some give the title of emperor, and who was the first king of Castile.

Of this long period, in which the Christian princes gained such glorious successes, and singular victories over the infidels, there are some short and obscure accounts in the little chronicles of Don Alonzo III. king of Leon, surnamed the Great, and of Alveda, Sampiro, and Don Pelayo.

At the same time with these Asturian princes arose many nobles, who signed their deeds and instruments, with the titles of counts or princes, and, among others, those of Castile, which state arrived at sovereignty in the time of the great count Fernan Gonzales, by his heroic valour, glorious triumphs, and extended power. The most distinguished prince of this house was Don Sancho Garcia, whose violent death was the cause why this house united itself to the crown of Arragon and Navarre, by the marriage of the princess Donna Sancha, his sister, with the king Don Sancho Mayer, whose second son, Don Fernando, raised Castile into a kingdom. Castile afterwards became an hereditary crown in his lineage, in preference to all the other kingdoms, though inferior in origin to Arragon and Navarre.

The series of chronology of the several counts is much contested between the Spanish writers, Arredondo, Arvalo, Sandoval, and others; a dispute not worth our entering into, since it is certain, that from the bravery, success, and power with which Don Fernando extended his dominion, so as to be styled first king of Castile, his kingdom became so famous, that all the Moorish princes acknowledged him for their sovereign. His son was Don Alonzo VI. his grand-daughter was the queen Donna Urraca, with whom ended the barony of Navarre; the crown of Castile falling back again into the house of the counts of Burgundy (who came from the kings of Italy), by her marriage with the count Don Raymond, her first husband, from which match came their son, the great emperor Don Alonzo VII.

This prince left his estates divided between his two sons; to Don Sancho, the eldest, whose great virtues and untimely

untimely death gained him the name of the Regretted, he left the kingdom of Castile and part of Leon; and to Don Ferdinand, the second, the rest of Leon, Galicia, and Asturias. He took upon himself the title of king of Spain, pretending that the primogeniture of the Goths, which was re-established in Pelayo, had centered in himself.

Don Sancho dying, was succeeded by Don Alonzo the Noble, one of the greatest princes of his time. It was he who gained the famous battle in the plains of Tolosa over the Moors, destroying, as some Spanish historians say, two hundred thousand of them at one time; but this number must be exaggerated. He dying without issue male, the two kingdoms of Castile and Toledo went to Donna Berenguela, his eldest daughter.

Although the royal barony of Burgundy ended in the queen Donna Berenguela, it returned and united with the kingdoms of Leon, Galicia, and Asturias, by the marriage of king Don Alonzo, her uncle (who succeeded in those kingdoms to king Don Fernando, brother to king Don Alonzo the Noble, her grandfather) from which match came the king San Fernando, from whom descended, without interruption, the kings of Castile and Arragon, until united in Ferdinand and Isabella. That king was reputed the wisest prince of his time, and his queen was really the wisest of her sex in that age. It was his policy that made the kings of Spain great; it was her virtue that made the crown so.

There were three things that fell out under their reigns, which entirely altered the face of affairs in Spain, and thereby changed the system of Europe. The first was the junction of the crowns of Castile and Leon, with the dominions that belonged to each of them; and this was brought about by their marriage. The second was the total expulsion of the Moors, which was effected by the conquest of Granada, the last of those principalities which they had erected in that country; and which the union of their dominions put it in the power of these princes to accomplish. The third was the discovery of the New World, and the annexing of it, when discovered, to their dominions; by which Spain may be said to commence her maritime power. Thus, in the compass of about thirty years, Spain became, beyond all comparison, the greatest power in Europe, which before was very inconsiderable. After their death the crown devolved to the au-

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gust house of Austria, by the marriage of the queen Donna Juana, their eldest daughter, to the archduke Don Philip I. from which great union sprung the emperor Charles V. He was at once emperor of Germany, king of Spain and Naples, master of a great part of Italy, and lord of the whole Low Countries, as well those that now form the republic of the United Provinces, as those which were styled the Spanish Netherlands, and now belong mostly to the emperor of Germany.

His son, Philip II. who, if ambitious princes are to be styled so, was the wisest king, at least the greatest politician, that Europe ever saw, and, in that quality, bade the fairest for universal monarchy; in his pretensions to which he was rather defeated by Providence, than either by the power or prudence of those that opposed him; and yet he had to deal with some of the greatest princes that ever ruled in this part of the world. The mighty power which he established dwindled away and sunk to nothing under his successors Philip III. Philip IV. and Charles II. so that at last they were protected in the possession of their dominions, by those very powers that had been raised upon their ruin. A strange revolution this! but worthy of attention; because it shews us how the most potent governments are enfeebled and brought to decay by all-grasping princes; and how Providence counteracts human policy, so as draw events directly contrary to their intentions, from the plans laid down and executed by the ablest statesmen, to gratify the desires of the most ambitious princes.

As Charles II. of Spain had no issue, England, France, and Holland, formed, in 1699, the famous treaty of partition, for dividing the dominions of the crown of Spain upon his death. Each party had, or at least pretended to have, the common view in this treaty, of preventing such a great accession of power from passing either into the house of Austria, or that of Bourbon, already formidable enough of themselves. This step very sensibly affected the court of Spain; Charles II. was so much offended at it, that, on his death bed, he signed a will, by which he bequeathed all his dominions to Philip, duke of Anjou, grandson of Lewis XIV. Though that prince had before entered into the partition-treaty, yet, finding the succession thus left to his family, he paid no regard to any former engagements or renunciations; but, on the 18th of February, declared his grandson Philip, king of Spain, who arrived at Madrid on the 14th of April, 1701. This pro-

proceeding immediately alarmed the maritime powers and the emperor; the former were apprehensive of Spanish America's falling into the hands of the French, and the latter, besides the injury he imagined done to his own family, dreaded the too great influence of the power of the house of Bourbon. A war ensued, and Charles, archduke of Austria, was soon after set up in opposition to Philip V. His claim was vigorously supported by the maritime powers, and at first favoured by many of the grandees of Spain. In the third year of this war the king of Portugal and the duke of Savoy joined likewise in the alliance against Philip; who, in the following campaigns, was driven from his capital by the success of the allied forces, and almost obliged to abandon Spain. In the end, however, his party prevailed, and, at the peace of Utrecht in 1713, he was acknowledged as king of Spain by all the confederates leagued against him; except the emperor. The allies then contented themselves with such limitations and restrictions as might keep the two monarchs of France and Spain disunited. A treaty of partition may, indeed, be said to have taken place at last; for Philip, by the articles of the peace, was only left in possession of Spain, its American colonies, and settlements in the East Indies; but the Spanish dominions in Italy, and the islands of Sicily and Sardinia, were dismembered from that monarchy, which had also lost the island of Minorca and the fortress of Gibraltar, both of which places were ceded to Great Britain. The duke of Savoy was put in possession of the island of Sicily, with the title of king; and the archduke Charles, who two years before had been elected emperor of Germany, held Milan, Naples, and Sardinia, and still kept up his claim to the whole Spanish monarchy.

Though Philip, by the peace concluded at Utrecht, was left by the allies possessor of the greatest and most important part of the Spanish dominions, yet some obstinate enemies still remained to be reduced, before he could be said to have fixed the Spanish crown securely upon his head. The inhabitants of Catalonia refused to acknowledge him, and finding themselves abandoned by their allies, solicited the assistance of the grand signior, in hopes of establishing themselves into an independent republic. Their blind obstinacy, however, served only to heighten the miseries and calamities to which they had been greatly exposed during the whole course of the war. After a most bloody and stubborn defence, they were entirely re-
duced

duced by the king's troops, when they were deprived of their ancient privileges, and their country was annexed to the crown of Castile, as a conquered province.

The reduction of Catalonia restored tranquillity to Spain, which had been harrassed for twelve years by a most cruel and bloody war. Philip, by that conquest, finding himself quietly seated upon the throne, began to turn his thoughts to the reunion of the Italian dominions, which he had seen wrested from him with the utmost regret. With a view to this re-union, his first wife being dead, he married Elizabeth Farnese, heiress of Parma, Placentia, and Tuscany; which alliance afterwards proved a source of new dissensions and wars among the princes of Europe; and, to this day, leaves an open field for bloody contests.

The new queen brought her father's minister into power, who was afterwards so well known by the title of cardinal Alberoni. This man, who must be allowed a great genius, projected the revival of the Spanish power, and the recovery of her Italian dominions, at a time when the former was thought very difficult, and the latter appeared totally impracticable. It is true that he did not absolutely succeed in this scheme; but it is not less true, that he came much nearer it than any body could have imagined; for he put the affairs of Spain into such order, that she had fleets and armies capable of alarming her neighbours, with which she actually recovered Sardinia, and would have recovered Sicily if the British naval power had not interposed, and given such a blow at Messina to his catholic majesty's maritime forces, as ruined all his schemes at once; and, what was still more, obliged his master to part with him, and to accede to the quadruple alliance, which was set on foot to supply the defects of the treaty of Utrecht, and to fix the tranquillity of Europe upon a more stable basis.

Some time after Philip, about the beginning of the year 1724, astonished all Europe, by publicly abdicating his crown in favour of his eldest son Don Lewis, prince of Asturias, who was then in the seventeenth year of his age. Philip, himself, though he had not reached his fortieth year, had long been sick of regal grandeur. From a weakness of body and mind, the least application to business had for some years given him a disgust; his mind was continually filled with religious scruples, which rendered him timorous and indecisive in every thing; and he

falsely imagined that a sceptre was incompatible with a life of integrity.

The Spaniards expressed great joy upon the accession of Lewis I. who was endeared to them, not only by being born among them, but by his generosity, affability, and many other virtues. The public joy, however, was soon turned into mourning, by the unexpected death of the king, who died of the small-pox, universally regretted, in the eighth month of his reign.

Upon the death of Lewis, Philip being persuaded to resume the reins of government, began to meditate new and strange designs, or rather such as were infused into his mind by the queen and his ministers. It is generally believed, and not without good grounds, that cardinal Alberoni, who was then at Rome, contrived that amazing scene which astonished all Europe; at least it is certain, that it was managed and transacted by one of his creatures, a man born to make a figure in unquiet times. This was the famous Riperda, who negotiated the treaty of Vienna, by which the emperor Charles VI. and king Philip, in whose quarrel such streams of blood had been shed, and such immense treasures expended, run into a close alliance for the mutual support of each other's interest, against those very powers which had sacrificed so much for the aggrandizement of both. The true motives to this singular measure are by many held to remain still a secret; but it seems to be pretty evident, that the views of the emperor were immediate, and those of Spain more at a distance. The former thought, that by this means he should establish his Ostend company, by which he hoped to revive the trade of the Low Countries, though at the expence of his old friends the Dutch; the latter consented to the aggrandizing of the imperial power, from the flattering expectation that Don Carlos, by marrying the eldest archduchess, at present empress and queen of Hungary, would become the successor to that branch of the house of Austria; as himself had been of the other, by which he seemed to renounce his engagements with France.

This strange turn was more extraordinary, considering the time in which it happened, when both France and the maritime powers were labouring to bring about in a rational and effectual manner such an accommodation as these monarchs hastily, and, in a great measure, inconsiderately clapped up, with views only to their private ad-

advantage. To balance this Vienna alliance, France, the maritime powers, and Prussia, entered into the famous treaty of Hanover, in order to provide for their own interests, which they thought could never be safe while this unnatural conjunction subsisted.

The emperor and the catholic king, or rather his queen (for she was at the bottom of all this), seemed determined to persist in the execution of schemes from whence they expected to derive such mighty advantages; but the Hanover allies took their measures so effectually, that they were obliged, after some fruitless attempts, to submit to the old method of determining all differences by a negotiation, which produced the congress of Soissons.

This congress was opened the 14th of June, 1728, but to very little purpose, except that it served to shew the ascendancy which the French minister, cardinal Fleury, had gained by an appearance of probity, and an exterior display of equity and moderation; which demonstrates, that universal monarchy might be attained by any powerful prince, who really possesses those virtues. But this situation growing tiresome to the British nation, their ministers entered into a secret negotiation with the crown of Spain, ending in the famous treaty of Seville; which it was expected would have determined all differences, and put a period to the labours of the ministers on both sides. But this was so far from answering those sanguine expectations, that the two next years were taken up in contriving expedients for carrying what was stipulated by that treaty into execution.

For the emperor's security it was before settled, that Swiss, and not Spanish troops, should be sent into Italy, to maintain don Carlos in the countries yielded to him by these several treaties. But the treaty of Seville altered this method, and provided, that Spanish troops should be substituted instead of Swiss. To which the emperor, as it might be reasonably expected, refused his consent in the most positive and direct terms. It was to get over this difficulty with him, that new negotiations were necessary, and, at length, the thing was brought about. The infant, don Carlos, was sent to Italy with Spanish troops, and received in quality of heir-apparent by the grand-duke of Tuscany, which, it was hoped, would have contributed much, not only to the pacifying these troubles, but securing the peace of Europe, for the present age at least. But, as the ablest politicians are very liable to mistake, this last step proved the cause of a war.

The infant don Carlos arrived in Italy in 1731, and, being in possession of all the dominions to which his expectative right had created so many disputes, his mother formed new schemes for enlarging his power, and for enabling him to assume and maintain the regal dignity. In order to this, she set on foot intrigues in France, to engage even the pacific cardinal in a measure directly repugnant to his system; and she endeavoured to engage the king of Sardinia to facilitate this design, by the promises of the duchy of Milan. His majesty had some reasons to wish well to the Spanish power, because of his being next in the intail of that monarchy; and, he had stronger reasons to dislike the measures of the imperial court, which, in respect to him, were not altogether so just, and by no means so grateful or decent as they ought to have been.

These were the motives to a new confederacy, which, upon the death of the king of Poland, in 1733, broke out into a war in Italy; and in the year following, don Carlos, or rather the Spanish general, Montemar, conquered the kingdom of Naples, where he fought one decisive battle at Bitonto, of which, to perpetuate the memory of his victory, he was made duke. As for the island of Sicily, the inhabitants, though not very remarkable for their loyalty or steadiness, had long shewn an affection for the Spanish government, which put don Carlos in possession of that country without a stroke. The emperor, though he had no assistance from his allies, made a tolerable defence in Italy; and the circumstances of things inclining the court of France to a peace, while it was in her power to be well paid for it, Spain was forced to submit, and by this means public quiet was restored in 1735. By this peace, don Carlos remained king of the Two Sicilies, and thereby erected a third monarchy in the house of Bourbon; but then he relinquished his maternal succession, which was (considering the different conditions of the countries) perhaps a full equivalent for it. His Sardinian majesty, who had hazarded much, and whose dominions had suffered excessively by the war, gained very little, if we except his gaining such an experimental knowledge of the good faith of the house of Bourbon, as must scarce have allowed him to trust it again. France, who pretended to get nothing, got all; for she had Lorraine added to her dominions, without any colour of right, except the most inglorious abandoning of king Stanislaus, chosen a second time king of Poland, could
be

be so called. This treaty was concluded at Vienna, with which, except France, none of the contracting powers either were, or had any reason to be satisfied. After this, king Philip might well be supposed to have nothing more in view, than to spend the remainder of his days in peace; and, indeed, this, very probably, might be all the view he had; but, for his queen, her views were without end. She had made her eldest son a king, her third a cardinal, and archbishop of Toledo, almost in his cradle; and, after all this, Europe must be once more embroiled, rather than her second son, don Philip, should miss being made an independent prince. To influence France in his favour, she had married him to a French princess; and to bring the king of Sardania into her scheme, she promised him any thing; but to no effect. She endeavoured likewise to cajole the court of Great Britain, but to no purpose. She then caused the king to turn a deaf ear to the complaints that were continually made of depredations committed in the West Indies, which produced at last a war between the two nations, extremely prejudicial to their mutual interests, and not less to her own, had she considered them in a true light; but ambition is usually blind, and the desire of acquiring defeats the power of discovering the means of acquisition.

Under the misfortunes of this war, and worn out with age and infirmities, Philip V. departed this life on the 11th of July, 1746, in the sixty-third year of his age, and was succeeded by the only surviving son of his first marriage, don Ferdinand. By his second queen, Elizabeth of Farnese, Philip left three sons, don Carlos, then king of the Two Sicilies; don Philip, duke of Parma and Placentia; and don Lewis, who not long since obtained leave to quit the church. Three daughters by the same queen likewise survived him, Maria Anna Victoria, queen of Portugal; Maria Theresa, married to the dauphin, and Maria Antonietta. Maria Theresa died in child-bed, a few days after her father.

Ferdinand VI. was about thirty-three years of age, when he ascended the throne. He began his reign with several acts of popularity, and among others, he assigned two days in the week to receive in person the petitions and remonstrances of his subjects. It was generally believed upon his accession, that things would have taken entirely a new turn in the court of Spain, and his Catholic majesty, or at least his ministers, took some pains to keep up this opinion, from whence they reaped very con-

siderable advantages. The war, however, was carried on with vigour, because, as the new king published in his manifestoes, it was very earnestly recommended to him by his father; and, at the same time it was given out, that his Catholic majesty looked upon it as a point of policy, as well as of duty, to procure his brother an establishment in Italy; so that it was very quickly discerned that a peace was not to be had without it.

In the negotiations that were carried on for peace, the court of Madrid relied implicitly upon that of Versailles. The marquis de Soto Major acted as the Spanish plenipotentiary at Aix la Chapelle, where the seventh article, regarding the cessions made to the infant don Philip, was indeed the most important, and by much the most disputed in the whole treaty; and though it was not adjusted entirely to the satisfaction of the Spanish court, which pressed for a general settlement of the duchies of Parma, Placentia, and Guastalla, upon the royal infant, and his issue, yet the terms were as good as could be reasonably expected, being confirmed by the most authentic acts of the empress-queen and the king of Sardinia. Honourable provisions were besides made for the allies of Spain, the duke of Modena, and the republic of Genoa. The disputed points between the British and Spanish commissaries were at length finally settled by a treaty concluded at Madrid, on the 5th of October, 1750. By this treaty, the king of Great Britain gave up his claim to the four remaining years of the *asiento*-contract, and to all debts the king of Spain owed to the English company on that account, for an equivalent of one hundred thousand pounds sterling. His Catholic majesty engaged to require from British subjects trading in his ports, no higher duties than they paid in the time of Charles II. of Spain, and to allow the same subjects to take salt on the island of Tortuga. All former treaties were confirmed, and the two princes promised to abolish all innovations that appeared to have been introduced into the reciprocal commerce of both nations. These innovations, however, not being specified, it was the same thing as if no mention had been made of them at all; and thus the most material differences being suffered to remain undecided, most unhappily gave rise to another war.

The remaining years of Ferdinand's reign, after the signing of the treaty of Madrid, were very barren of events. The English court was jealous of his attempts to introduce the woollen manufacture in Spain, and reclaimed

claimed their workmen in that branch who had passed over thither. New disputes likewise arose between them, on the account of the English trafficking with the Indians, of the Moskito shore, who had never submitted to Spain, and claimed to act as a free nation. Ferdinand, at the same time, had the mortification to find it impossible to introduce a spirit of industry among his subjects, the favours and encouragements of the court being like rain falling upon a sandy desert, where there was not a seed or plant to be enlivened by it.

In the year 1756, a war breaking out between Great Britain and France, Ferdinand declared, on that occasion, that he would adhere to the strictest neutrality; but he was far from observing the neutrality he professed; and partially favoured France in a great number of instances. His queen, the infanta Mary Magdalena of Portugal, dying about the end of the year 1758, he was so affected with grief, that he entirely abandoned himself to gloom and melancholy; and neglecting both exercise and food, threw himself into a dangerous distemper, which, after preying upon him for several months, put a period to his life the year following, on the 10th of August.

As Ferdinand left no issue, he was succeeded by his brother don Carlos, king of the Two Sicilies, who resigned that kingdom, and disjoined it from the monarchy of Spain by a solemn deed, in favour of his third son, don Ferdinand; setting aside his eldest son on account of his weakness of mind, or idiocy, and reserving his second son for the succession of Spain. Don Carlos, or Charles III. arrived in Spain in the month of November, and soon after entered Madrid in great pomp and ceremony. The transactions of the present reign, those particularly relating to Great Britain, are recent in every one's memory; so that, it need only be observed, that whoever will peruse the letters laid before our parliament, relating to Spain, will plainly perceive the candour of the court of Great Britain, and the ability of her ministers; and that the Spaniards artfully, and with the greatest injustice, sought a rupture, for which they afterwards paid very dear, by their losses at the Havanna; and by being obliged to desist from their pretensions to a fishery at Newfoundland, and likewise to cede to us all Florida, and to allow us to cut logwoods in the bay of Campeachy.

If Spain had been absolutely detached from, and no way dependent upon France, with which she seems now

rivettèd more than ever by the Bourbon family-compact; her power would not have been the object of envy to the rest of Europe; and the establishment of the younger princes of her family in Italy might have been promoted, instead of being so vigorously opposed by certain potentates, who do not act either from ambition or caprice, but are influenced purely by motives of self-preservation, and a just regard for the maintenance of that commerce, which is, and must be, the basis of their power.

The face of affairs in Spain has been greatly changed by the accession of the present family to the throne, who, without doubt, reaped great advantages from the prodigious efforts made in their favour by the French, who yet made those efforts in favour of a younger branch of their royal family, and not as the natural, or even political allies of the Spanish nation; and it is certain, that they have been well paid for it since. But the condition to which Spain was reduced both in Europe and America, at the time of the death of Charles II. is a proof that there cannot be a greater misfortune to any people, than for their princes ever to entertain thoughts of universal monarchy, whether by actually subduing, or by maintaining a general influence over other nations; for the former method will infallibly leave them without men, as the latter must necessarily leave them without money.

*Government of
Spain.*

The government of Spain was, by its ancient constitution, a limited monarchy, of hereditary succession, both in males and females. It was limited by its cortes, or parliament, composed of representatives sent from the cities and towns, each of which, according to the old Gothic plan, sent procurators, or deputies, chosen by and out of the aldermen of their respective cities. The eldest member for Burgos always acted as speaker for the house; though Toledo was a rival to Burgos for that privilege. In order to adjust amicably their claims, the king used to say on opening the session of the cortes, "I will speak for Toledo, which will do what I order: but let Burgos speak first;" because Burgos was anciently the capital of Castile. No act could pass in this parliament by a majority of voices; it required the unanimous consent of all the members. All its acts were afterwards carried to the king to be confirmed. The members of this parliament were always assembled in a cortes, by letters convocatory from the king and privy-council; and it was dissolved by a notification from the president of that council. But notwithstanding its dissolution, a committee of eight members

bers still remained at court. This cortes has rarely been called since the year 1647, when they gave Philip IV. the millones, or general excise. Their last meeting was in May 1713, when they assembled to receive the renunciation of Philip V. to his rights upon the crown of France. This assembly was anciently the keeper of the revenues of the crown; but Charles V. and his ministers, first laid them aside, because they could get no money from them; and having obtained a grant of the sale of the bull of the crusado from the pope, they found they could get money without the help of a cortes, and so took their leave of an assembly which few princes or ministers are fond of seeing, as their power was great, and they could call ministers so severely to an account.

This ancient Spanish cortes undoubtedly resembled our British parliament; for all the northern nations had originally a like form of government, which was a limited monarchy, and the legislative authority was so commixt in the king and the estates, that no laws could be made, repealed, or suspended, nor any money raised upon the subject, but with their common consent. But now this cortes is laid aside, Spain is no longer a mixt monarchy, but entirely absolute; the whole government being solely in the hands of the king and his ministers, and the councils, which are altogether at their devotion. This change from mixt to absolute monarchy was occasioned by the timidity of the commons of Castile, who having in their last struggle for expiring freedom, supported for some time a war against the crown, on a single defeat deserted the noble cause of liberty in the most abject manner. This war began in the year 1520, and lasted only two years; at which time Charles V. carried his point with a high hand, and told the cortes, he would always have the supplies granted first, and then he would pass the bills they petitioned for, and not before, to which they timidly submitted, and voted him four millions of ducats, about forty-eight thousand pounds sterling, to be paid in three years.

The writ anciently sent to each city, as a summons to parliament, convened all the prelates, masters of the military orders of knighthood, earls, rich men, nobles, and procurators of the cities and towns throughout the realm.

The Spanish kings, according to the laws of Spain, are declared of age, or out of their minority, on the completion of their fourteenth year. In regulating the succession, after the death of Charles II. a medium was observed between the Salic law, and the usage of Castile; namely, that

that any male heir, however distant, should inherit before a female, who was to have no right but after the extinction of every male branch.

*Laws of
Spain.*

The laws of Spain are compounded chiefly of the Roman civil law, the royal edicts, and probably certain provincial customs, much in the nature of our common law in England. Much of the feudal and Gothic constitutions still remain, the grandes having still their vassals, and very extensive powers over their persons.

*Council of
the inquisition.*

Besides their tribunals and courts of justice, there is the council of the inquisition, or, as they call it, the supreme office of the holy tribunal, consisting of an inquisitor-general, five counsellors, whereof one must be a Dominican friar, a procurator, two secretaries of the chamber, two secretaries of the council, an alguazil mayor, a receiver, two reporters, two qualificators and consultors, and a legion of familiars or spies. This tribunal is established at Madrid, but there are also other inferior ones in the great cities almost all over Spain. These are the great state-curbs that hold the people in such an implicit religious obedience, and preserve their boasted uniformity of the Roman Catholic faith. This court was erected in the thirteenth century, about the year 1251. Pope Innocent IV. authorised the Dominicans as perpetual inquisitors. Clement IV. confirmed these powers, and enlarged their privileges and tribunals in the year 1265. It was established in Castile under Ferdinand and Isabella, and in Portugal by John III. in the year 1557. In 1483. Ferdinand obtained a bull to constitute the inquisition in Arragon and Valentia from Sixtus IV. who afterwards extended it all over the Catholic dominions. This holy office used anciently to acknowledge only the power of the pope above it, and bade defiance to all other controul. It raised itself far above the authority of their kings, who were often bridled, humbled, and even punished by it. It then was truly formidable, when supported by the united force of papal and royal authority. Their auto de fés, or solemn acts of faith, used to be exhibited commonly when their princes came of age, or at their accession. But now these sanguinary acts seem to be growing out of vogue in Spain. There has not been an auto de fé at Madrid for these thirteen or fourteen years; owing to this circumstance: a Jew and his wife, and a daughter of about thirteen years of age, being condemned to be burnt, while the

the father and mother were burning, they set the child loose from its fetters, and the priests got round it with a view of converting it by the united force of their rhetoric, and the terror of immediately undergoing the same cruel death. The child, after seeming to listen awhile to their oratory, gave a sudden spring, and vaulted into the midst of the fire; giving a shining example of the force of filial piety and heroic fortitude, equal to that of the most resolute Roman, or the most unshaken martyr. The power of this tribunal is now declining very visibly, and seems hastening to its fall; for the present king of Spain has taken a bolder step to humble the inquisition than any of the Philip's or Charles's who went before him. The inquisitor-general having thought proper in the year 1752, to prohibit a liturgy which the king had licensed, without consulting his majesty about it; the king, with a very proper spirit, put the inquisitor under an arrest, and immediately sent him, guarded with a file of grenadiers, into exile, in a convent at a great distance from Madrid. So determined and resolute a measure as this alarmed the whole body of the clergy; they moved heaven and earth to obtain the inquisitor's recall; but for some time their endeavours had no effect: the king was inflexible. The common people were taught by their priests to say, that his Catholic majesty was no good Catholic in his heart. At length, however, the king restored the inquisitor to his liberty; but, in such a manner, that the prelate had no reason to triumph; for his majesty, at the time of releasing him, published at Madrid an edict, as a curb upon the proceedings of the inquisition.

It is said, that our trade with Old and New Spain is now full one third less than it was about forty years ago; and that the balance and exchange between Spain and Great Britain, are every day more and more turning again the latter. The causes of this decrease are indeed not at all difficult to be discovered or accounted for. Part of it is owing to the extreme avarice and extortion of our own merchants, who, not contented with moderate profits, have kept up the prices of their goods beyond their just proportion, and thereby opened a door for the French and Dutch to undersell us at the Spanish markets. Another reason is, that the price of labour in those two countries is considerably lower than our own, which enables them likewise to afford their goods to the Spaniards at a much cheaper rate than we can do. A third reason is, the alteration introduced during the Spanish war in

State of the commerce and manufactures of Spain, so far as they relate to Great Britain.

queen

in queen Anne's time, when the French crept into that trade, and deprived us of a greater share of it than we shall probably be ever able to recover. A fourth reason may be, the progress which the Spaniards themselves have made in some branches of manufacture; for the encouragement which the kings of the house of Bourbon have given to manufactures and arts, has excited some few Spaniards to apply themselves to industry and trade. To second this view, the reigning family and the ministry also in Spain have endeavoured, by means of foreign workmen, to set on foot various manufactures; and the great attention they have given to that object, has not been altogether without effect. Notwithstanding these unfavourable circumstances, our traffic with Spain is still very considerable, and chiefly in the following articles. We export to that country large quantities of dried and salted fish, called by them bacalas; likewise broad-cloths, and woollen stuffs of various kinds, to a great amount: silk stuffs, cutlery ware, warlike and naval stores, particularly cables and anchors; also watches, wrought brass, and prince's metal toys, mathematical instruments, cabinet-work, particularly of mahogany, wrought and unwrought tin, leather, lead, corn, dry and salted meat, cattle, butter, cheese, beer, hats, linen, vitriol, pepper, rice, and other products of our American colonies; and, if we attended to it, we might supply them with great quantities of timber from those colonies, as the Spaniards, though they have, in some parts, fine woods of excellent oak, yet, from their inexpertness in felling trees, and want of roads, are in a manner entirely deprived of the use of them. From Spain we receive the following articles: wine, oil, vinegar, fruits of various kinds, as olives, raisins of the sun, raisins dried with ashes, called by them passas de lexia; raisins from Almunegar, a city on the coast of Andalusia, famous for that produce; chestnuts, almonds, figs, citrons, lemons, oranges, cocoa-nuts, Spanish pepper, pomegranates, fine oil, indigo, cochineal, materials for dying, kali, or barilla, and soda, for the making of soap and glass, chiefly from Alicant; quicksilver, some wrought silks, particularly from Valentia; and of late raw silk, balsam of Peru, vanillas, cake-chocolate of Guajaca, sarsaparilla, salted sea-brizzle, saltpetre, salt from Cadiz, salt from Port St. Mary's, woollen counterpanes, and a remarkable fine sort of blankets from Segovia, iron from Biscay, sword blades, particularly from Toledo, gun and pistol barrels from Guipuscoa and Barcelona, vermillion, borax,

borax, hams, snuff from Seville and the Havannah, soap; formerly a considerable article, but as we now make it ourselves, only a trifle; several roots and drugs of the growth of Spain and America, employed in medicine. Logwood is not specified as an article of importation from Spain; for however it may have been such formerly, we may now hope to supply ourselves with it, as it appears by the sixteenth article of the preliminaries of the peace of 1763, that we have at length happily obtained the free and unmolested liberty of cutting it in the Bay of Honduras, on condition of demolishing all our fortifications erected there, and in other parts of Spanish America. But it were to be wished, that the liberty of cutting it also had been extended in express terms to the Bay of Campeachy. Those who know the value of this article, will receive great pleasure on seeing it now well settled; for whatever our pretensions were, we certainly had but a very disputable right to that important branch of trade; and this will even appear from the perusal of the memorial of the board of trade, laid before his majesty king George I. and drawn up expressly to prove that claim. We shall have occasion to make some farther observations on the trade and commerce of Spain, when we come to treat of Spanish America.

The soil of Spain is naturally dry, and is rendered still more so, by reason of the great heats, which parch up the springs and brooks, and by the want of rain to refresh the earth at proper seasons. Notwithstanding this inconvenience, arising from the dryness of the soil, and the want of rain, yet, if the inhabitants were industrious, and applied themselves with assiduity to the cultivation of their lands, a general abundance might prevail, which is far from being the case at present, for in many places there is often great scarcity of bread. The genius of the people is doubtless naturally averse to toil and labour. Give a Spaniard but his cloak, hat, and sword, his wine and his bread, and he cares not how little he works. Another great obstruction to agriculture is the immense number of lazy ecclesiastics in these kingdoms, and the perpetual succession of holidays allowed by the church, which deprive the state of one third of the labour that it ought to receive from its subjects. To these may be added the thinness of its population: Spain in general, and Granada in particular, have never recovered that fatal blow of the expulsion of the Moors; the effects of which are felt still more by the addition of civil and religious celi-

*State of
agriculture
and popu-
lation in
Spain.*

bacy.

bacy. When Philip, on one hand, banished to the amount of one hundred thousand industrious infidels, from a principle of religion, he ought, on the other hand, from a principle of policy, to have set open the gates of every nunnery and convent in his dominions. The number of these useless, sequestered males and females, these dead limbs of the body politic, are computed by some at no less than two hundred thousand ; but probably this calculation is much exaggerated. Besides the bad consequences of religious celibacy, their thin population is in part owing to the sterility of their females ; and above all, to the vast emigrations of their people to America. To remedy these defects, the ministry, in Philip III's and IV's time, offered great premiums to promote marriage and agriculture. But their imprudent schemes of policy in other instances, have rendered those patriotic laws almost ineffectual. Another unfavourable circumstance to agriculture is, there being no exportation of corn allowed in Spain from one province to another, except for the king's use, the exigencies of the fleet, army, and such occasions. In consequence of this bad policy, they are obliged to send to Barbary and other parts of Africa, or to England, for corn ; for it is morally impossible but the harvest must fail annually in some one province or other, and then that province must be supplied from abroad. Indeed, the transportation of it to any great distance is almost impracticable ; for their large rivers being left in their natural state, are not navigable. But the military spirit of these people, which has always prevailed, has no doubt given them a contempt for agriculture. Whoever travels over Spain, will be grieved to see such vast tracts of fine land turned to so little advantage ; great part of it not tilled, and that which is, done in so careless and slovenly a manner, as to produce a starved crop of corn, even in spots where they might command the most abundant harvest. Their corn is usually choaked up with stones, filth, and weeds of every kind. There cannot be a stronger proof given of the fertility of the soil in Spain, than its producing so much as it does, when it is considered how little labour they bestow upon it. When they plow, they scarce do more than just scratch the surface of the ground with a slight furrow ; after the first plowing, they let the earth lie for a few days, and then they sow the wheat in September, and the barley in February : when this is done, they seldom use the harrow, but plow it over again, in order to cover the seed. Thus it stands till June or July,

July, at which time they cut it down. The barley is rarely bound in sheafs, and the wheat not always. Neither, however, are carried into barns; but they lay them down on some clean dry hillock, and then their mules come with a drag, and tread or beat out the corn; it is a shorter method than our threshing. The winnowing there is done still easier, by only throwing the corn up into the air. Yet such is the general indolence of the inhabitants of this country, that many of them will neither reap or gather in their own corn. We should except, however, the industrious Gallicians, who, with great numbers out of France from Auvergne and Languedoc, annually travel over all Spain to be its husbandmen.

The Spaniards have in general an olive complexion, are of middle stature, rather lean, but well made; have fine eyes, glossy black hair, and a small well shaped head. Their cloaths are usually of a very dark colour, and their cloaks almost black. This shews the natural gravity of the people. This is the general dress of the common sort; for the court and persons of fashion have most of them adopted the French dress and modes. As their natural air is gravity, so they have consequently great coldness and reserve in their deportment; they are therefore very uncommunicative to all, and particularly to strangers. But when once you are become acquainted with them, and have contracted an intimacy, there are not more social, more friendly, or more conversible beings in the world. They are a people of the highest notions of honour, even to excess, which is a still visible effect of their ancient love of chivalry, and was the animating spirit of that enthusiasm. They have great probity and integrity of principle. As they persevere with much fidelity and zeal in their friendships, you will naturally expect to find them warm, resentful, and implacable in their resentments. They are generous, liberal, magnificent, and charitable; religious without dispute, but devout to the greatest excesses of superstition. If they have any predominant fault, it is, perhaps, that of being rather too high-minded; hence they have entertained, at different periods, the most extravagant conceits; such as, that the sun only rose and set in their dominions; that their language was the only tongue fit to address the Almighty with; and that they were the peculiar favourites of heaven. They formerly thought, that wisdom, glory, power, riches, and dominion, were their sole monopoly; but the experience of two or three centuries past has contributed to shew the fondness

*Persons,
genius.
character,
manners,
humours,
and divers-
fous of the
Spaniards.*

fondness of all these delusions. The open and avowed attempts of Spain's Austrian princes grasping at universal monarchy; the secret and more concealed ambition of the Bourbon line, with all their plans of refined policy, have been, as Shakspeare calls it, like the baseless fabric of a vision. It has been owing to these lofty conceits, that they are still possessed with the highest notions of nobility, family, and blood. The mountaineer of Asturias, though a peasant, will plume himself as much upon his genealogy and descent, as the first grandee; and the Castilian, with his coat armour, looks upon the Gallician with sovereign contempt. The profession of arms is their chief delight; to this darling passion, commerce, manufactures, and agriculture, have been always sacrificed. They bear all hardships with the most unremitting patience, and can endure heat, cold and even hunger, with some degree of cheerfulness. They have courage and constancy sufficient for the most hazardous undertakings; and though naturally slow, yet when once put in action, pursue their object with great warmth and perseverance. Bigotry has been very prejudicial to the Spaniards, and not only in religion, but in the arts and sciences, and has greatly retarded their advancement in learning. It is impossible that those who are too blindly attached to the opinions of the ancients, should make any great figure among the moderns. To politics the Spaniards have a natural inclination; they study and understand the political interests of their country thoroughly; even the common peasants will sometimes make reflections on public affairs, that would be not unworthy of a senator in the cortes.

The taste for gallantry and dancing prevails in Spain universally; they are the two ruling passions of the country. Jealousy, ever since the accession of the house of Bourbon, has slept in peace. It is observable, that in proportion as manners become more civilized, that furious passion always loses its force. Dancing is so much their favourite entertainment, that their gravest matrons never think themselves excluded by age from this diversion. You may see the grandmother, mother, and daughter, all in the same country dance: the English, on the contrary, give dancing to youth, and leave cards to age. Most of the Spaniards take their siesta, or sleep after dinner; mass in the morning, dinner at noon, and the evening's airing, generally finish the round of their day. Though it is the custom of the country for the men and women to wear in the street and at mass all the same dress, yet the ladies

in private visits wear as much variety of dress, and of a much richer sort than those in England; but to a people of gallantry, the advantage of all wearing the same uniform in public, is easy to be conceived. The married ladies in Spain have each their professed lover, just as the Italian ladies have their cicisbeo. Their evening's airing is insipid to the last degree; you see nothing but a string of coaches following one another, filled with people of fashion: here a duke and his confessor; there a couple of smart young abbés tête à tête; here a whole family grouped together, just like a Dutch picture, husband and wife, children and servants, wet nurses and dry all together. When they take their airing on gala, or court days, all their footmen are then dressed in laced liveries, with plumes of feathers in their hats. The number of servants kept by the grandees and people of the first fashion is immoderate. Some of the Spanish grandees retain to the number of three or four hundred, and the English ambassador, in compliance with the taste of the country, keeps near a hundred.

S E C T. III.

Of Portugal.

THE kingdom of Portugal borders northwards on Galicia in Spain, and is divided from it by the Minho, next the sea, and by some small rivers and hills farther up land towards the east; the west and south sides are washed by the ocean, including the little kingdom of Algarve on the south; and on the west the Guadiana parts the said little kingdom from Andalusia, from whence drawing a line northwards, Portugal borders on Andalusia, Estramadura, and Leon. The whole extent of it from north to south is three hundred miles, that is, from 37 to 42 degrees of latitude; from east to west, where broadest, which is about the middle, it is about one hundred and twenty miles, that is, from 7 to 9 deg. west longitude, and where narrowest next Algarve, about sixty.

*Boundaries
and extent
of Portugal.*

The soil of Portugal is, perhaps, the very worst in all Spain, yet not universally so. Upon the whole, it never produces corn enough to maintain its inhabitants, but must be supplied either from Spain or from England, and other

Soil, produce, &c.

northern countries: Pasture is no less scarce, if we except some of the northern parts, as the province called Entre Duero e Minho, and along the banks of some of their great rivers, where the best and largest cattle are fed; but on the southern side the cattle are very scarce, small and lean, though the flesh is generally good. To make amends for this want of corn and pasture, vast quantities of wine are made, which is indeed the best commodity of this kingdom, and so well known at present to all England, that we need say the less about it. Oil is here likewise in great abundance, but far inferior to that we have from other countries, being commonly so strong and fetid, that none can use it who have been ever accustomed to the Spanish and Italian. Lemons and oranges also grow here, and are exported in great quantities, though the acidity of the latter is nothing near so pleasant as that of those which come from Seville; nor are indeed any of their fruits so large or well tasted as those of Spain. Herbs and flowers of all sorts are here commonly very good, and great quantities of perfumed waters are distilled from the odoriferous kinds, which are in great request, being in some shape or other, used in almost every thing that is eaten, drank, or worn. This country produces likewise great quantities of alum, white marble, alabaster, and especially salt, of which immense loads are continually exported from the port of Setuval, for most of the northern nations. Here also are several mineral and medicinal springs, of great virtue, and much resorted to, some of a hot, and others of a cold nature. The woollen manufactures of Portugal are of so indifferent and coarse a nature, that they are only worn by the meaner sort, being scarce fit for any other. Their silks are, in some places, much better, but far inferior not only in beauty and goodness, but in quantity, to those which are made in Spain. The country in general is well peopled, and filled with goodly cities, towns, and villages, though not every where alike.

*Divided
into six
provinces.*

Portugal is divided into six provinces, including the little kingdom of Algarve. These provinces, beginning at the north, and descending to the south, are 1. Entre Duero e Minho. 2. Tra los Montes. 3. Beira. 4. Estramadura. 5. Alentejo. And 6. Algarve.

*Province
of Entre
Duero e
Minho,*

The province of Entre Duero e Minho, has the Minho on the north, to divide it from Gallicia, and the Duero on the south, which parts it from Beira; on the west it

is bounded by the ocean, and on the east by a ridge of mountains, which separates it from the province of Tra los Montes. Its utmost length does not exceed thirty-six miles, greatest breadth thirty, and where narrowest twelve or fourteen; but though small, it is the best inhabited, and has the greatest number of cities, towns, and villages, of all the rest, in proportion; besides that, it is one of the pleasantest and most fertile, though mountainous, having many other rivers besides the two that inclose it, and a vast number of rivulets and sweet springs to water it; which, as above hinted, make it abound in good pasture more than any other parts of Portugal, though inferior in this respect to many of the provinces of Spain. Together with the pastures, the plains are every where covered with vines, fruit, and other trees of all sorts, and the country well supplied with every necessary of life, except as before observed, it has not a sufficient quantity of corn for its inhabitants.

Braga, and Porto or Oporto, are its chief cities. The latter is a famed sea-port on the north side of the Duero, about three miles from the sea, and pleasantly situated on a rocky ground, that river washing its walls. The port, a very commodious one, is so well known and frequented by our nation, that we need say the less of it. The harbour is safe against all winds, but when the floods come down, no anchor can hold the ships; at which time they are forced to squeeze and fasten them to each other along the walls, to avoid the fury of the torrent. The city stands in 41 deg. 10 min. north latitude, and 8 deg. 30 min. west longitude. Its distance is one hundred and twenty miles north from Lisbon. *Oporto.*

The province Tra los Montes is so called, because seated on the other side of that chain of hills which parts it on the west from that of Entre Duero e Minho, just described; on the north it borders on Galicia, and eastward on the kingdom of Leon; and on the south the Duero parts it from Beira. Its length from east to west, is at most about seventy-four miles, and breadth near sixty. This country is dry and barren, having but few rivers to water it, and none of them of any considerable length or breadth. For this reason the territory has but few corn fields, except rye and some barley, but yields plenty of wine, fruits of several sorts, and abundance of game. The cities of this province are Braganza and Miranda. *Province of Tra los Montes.*

*Province
of Beira.*

The province of Beira is divided on the north from the province Entre Duero e Minho by the former of those rivers; it is bounded by the ocean on the west, and by some part of Estramadura; on the south by another part of that province, and by the Tagus; and on the east it runs contiguous to the Spanish Estramadura and the kingdom of Leon. The country, though not so rich and fertile as some in this kingdom, is yet capable of producing good corn, wine, and other useful commodities, if rightly cultivated.

*Coimbra
and Avei-
ro.*

Coimbra, once the metropolis of Portugal, is still one of the finest cities in this kingdom, and no less celebrated for its famed university. It is pleasantly seated on the north side of the river Mondego, about ninety miles north from Lisbon. Aveiro is a considerable market-town, commodiously seated in a plain, upon a bay at the mouth of a creek, on the western coast, and made by a small river, which divides the town into two parts, joined by a stately bridge. In this creek, which is pretty large, and forms a kind of haven, is made a vast quantity of salt, which is exported, some into other parts of the kingdom, and the rest into foreign parts. It stands about a hundred and one miles from Lisbon.

*Province of
Estrama-
dura.*

The province of Estramadura is a long narrow slip, running along the sea-coast, and reaching from the mouth of the river Mondego northwardly down, and southwardly quite below the town of Setuval; so that it extends from the latter to the former, that is, from south-west to north-east, about one hundred and ten miles. In breadth it is scarce fifty, and in some places much narrower; and its utmost verge westward, which is the Cape la Roca, or, as our seamen term it, the Rock of Lisbon, lies under 9 deg. 45 min. west longitude. It is bounded on the north by the Mondego above mentioned, which parts it from Beira and the province of Alentejo; and it has again Beira on the east, and the ocean on the west. The land is here for the most part the very best in Portugal, and the climate very pleasant and mild, by being so near the western ocean. It produces wheat and other grain in greater plenty than the other provinces, abundance of wine, oil, fruits of all sorts, especially citrons, lemons, oranges, pomegranates, figs, dates, almonds, &c. upon which account the people here live much better, and are above want. Here are also greater variety of manufactures carried on, and a much larger share of trade and commerce;

all

all which is owing partly to its commodious situation and sea-ports, to its proximity to the city of Lisbon, the metropolis of this province and kingdom, and to the noble river Tagus, which is navigable a considerable number of leagues inland, and is therefore the means of a very considerable commerce from that metropolis.

Lisbon, the head city of this kingdom, the residence of its monarchs, the great seat of all the courts of justice, the metropolitan see of Portugal, the most noble and celebrated university of it, an emporium of the world, the receptacle of all the richest merchandizes of the East and West-Indies, and the best sea-port in the whole kingdom, is situate in 38 deg. 46 min. of latitude, and about 9 deg. of west longitude, in an excellent air; and though the climate is rather inclinable to heat, yet it is refreshed by the delightful breezes of the sea, and of the river Tagus, on the banks of which it is pleasantly and strongly seated, and which conveys to it a very great share of the wealth of Asia and America, as well as the chief commodities of Europe and Africa. The harbour is one of the most commodious in Europe, lying upon the western ocean, and capacious enough of itself to contain ten thousand ships, all riding in safety, and without incumbering each other; and it carries water enough for the largest vessels to anchor before the windows of the royal palace. The entrance of it is defended by two handsome forts, the first seated on the shore, the other standing opposite to it, on a shelf, in the midst of the water. Besides these, nature has provided it with another defence, which is the bar, very dangerous to pass without pilots belonging to the place. Within this appears a vast capacious bay, which contracts itself as it draws near the city.

The city of Lisbon, built, like old Rome, on several little hills, is one of the finest views from the water that can possibly be imagined. As you approach nearer to it, the tragical effects, the havock of that dreadful earthquake which happened on the 1st of November, 1755, cannot but touch every beholder with sentiments of pain. After landing, you pass through some streets, near a mile in length, where the houses all fell on each side, and many of them still lie in that undistinguished heap of ruin, into which they sunk at the first convulsive shocks. Not that it is to be imagined, that the greatest part of that fine city fell on that fatal morning; so far from this, that not above one fourth part of it was destroyed; for it prevailed more in one particular quarter than the rest; and there

*Earth-
quake at
Lisbon.*

the desolation was almost universal, scarce a house or building remaining that was not thrown down. In the other parts of the city, some single ill-conditioned or ruinous buildings fell, but the rest stood; and there is scarce a street but shores and props may be seen fixed to the buildings on each side, to prevent their falling even now, having suffered so much from the shocks they had received. St. Ubes, not far from Lisbon, was also destroyed. The shocks continued for several days after, and were felt in most parts of Europe; and the waters were agitated in many places in a most surprising manner. The cities of Fez and Morocco received likewise considerable damage from the several shocks they had in those parts, where numbers of the inhabitants were destroyed. Considering how much time has elapsed since this earthquake, very little of the city of Lisbon has been rebuilt in proportion. They have built a custom-house, an arsenal, a theatre, and some few other buildings. All agree, that the fire occasioned infinitely more havock than the earthquake. Thousands of the inhabitants, unhappily, in the first confusion of their fear, taking the ill-judged step of thronging into the churches, the doors of which being sometimes shut by the violence of the croud, and sometimes locked up by mistake, when the fire seized the roofs of these buildings, these unhappy sufferers were most of them destroyed; some by sheets of lead, that poured like a molten deluge upon their heads, others mashed by the fall of the roofs, and the rest burnt alive. One's imagination can scarce form a scene of confusion, horror, and death, more dreadful than this. After the shocks were over, the fire continued burning for many weeks; and it is thought was one principal cause of their escaping the plague, as the putrefaction of the bodies was by that means much less. The calculation of the number that perished, as they kept no registers, must be in a great measure conjectural; but that thousands and ten thousands were destroyed, there is no doubt. The morning on which it happened was most remarkably serene and pleasant, particularly about ten o'clock, and in one quarter of an hour more, all was involved in this dreadful scene of terror and destruction. As this event produced many changes, those among the commercial parts of the city were not the least remarkable. One, who yesterday was at the eve of a bankruptcy, found himself to-day with his books cleared; and hundreds, who lived in ease and affluence, as soon as they had

had recovered from their first panic and dismay, saw want and poverty stare them in the face.

Some of the churches, the arsenals, the theatre, and above all, the aqueduct at Lisbon, deserve the attention of every traveller; the center arch for its height, being one of the noblest perhaps in Europe. One thing is remarkable, that during the earthquake this building stood the attack, though so much affected by the shock, that many of the key-stones fell several inches, and hang now only because a small part of the base of the key-stone was caught by the center's closing again. The streets of Lisbon are cleaner than those of Madrid, but disagreeable, from the continual ascents and descents one is obliged to make. Most of the houses have the *jalousie*, or *lattice*. The women, though more beautiful, are not so much seen in public as the Spanish, and their head-dress is much prettier. There are few fires in chimneys in the rooms at Lisbon; the want of them is supplied by wearing a cloak constantly in the house, or perhaps by a brazier; though the cold is sometimes very piercing. The view of the Tagus, from those windows of the town which command it, is remarkable pleasing; the beancods, or small-boats, which sail with any wind or tide, and are continually passing; the river coudeed with shipping of all nations; the coming in of a Bahia or Brasil fleet; the opening of the river towards the bar, with the castle of Bellem on the right, the king's palace, and the castle of St. Julian's on the left; all together form a very fine and agreeable view.

The other places of note in this province, are; 1. Setuval, a considerable sea-port on this coast, a little below Lisbon, being much resorted to by most northern nations especially, for the vast quantities of salt that are made here every year. 2. Santarem, forty-two miles north-east from Lisbon, situate on a high hill, close to the Tagus. It has on the south side a deep valley, with a steep winding ascent to the town, and on the north is a craggy solid rock, altogether inaccessible; but on the west it faces a delightful plain, covered with gardens, orchards, and fertile fields, producing a great quantity of corn, oil, and variety of fruits. The Tagus, which is here very broad and navigable, enriches the adjacent country by the channels that are cut from it; insomuch that we are told by some Spanish authors, that it yields a prodigious increase of wheat and other grain, which are often sown, cut down, and threshed, within the space of two months.

3. Sintra, seated near the sea, at the foot of a ridge of mountains, and by the cape that bears its name, almost on the utmost western verge of Portugal. The town is justly esteemed the most delightful spot in the whole kingdom, both for the beauty of its situation and prospect, and for the fruitfulness of its territory. The rock on which it stands, has a noble quarry of black and white marble, in great request. 4. Alcazar Do Sal, situate thirty-five miles south-west from Lisbon, on the river Zadao. It is so called, from the great quantities of salt produced in its environs.

*Province of
Alentejo.*

The province of Alentejo borders north on part of Estramadura, and of the river Tagus; eastward, on the Spanish province of Andalusia and Estramadura; on the west it is bounded by the ocean, and part of the Portuguese Estramadura; and on the south, by the little kingdom of Algarve. It lies between 37 deg. 30 min. latitude, and about 39 deg. west longitude; but so irregular, and runs so much into the adjacent provinces, that its extent cannot be precisely stated. In the whole it runs, where widest, between ninety and a hundred miles; and in some places beyond, and in others much less than eighty. This country is reckoned the finest and most fertile in all Portugal, and its inhabitants the wealthiest and best bred. The far greater part are farmers, and the land is so rich, and so well watered by a number of rivers, which fall either into the Tagus or Guadiana, which two last great ones run quite across the province, that they are all wealthy and industrious, and have few poor people among them. Its cities and towns of chief note are Evora, Elvas, and Estremos. Near the last, remarkable for its curious manufacture of red earthen-ware, is a noble spring, which throws up so much water in summer, as serves to turn several mills; and, contrary to all others, is dried up all the winter.

*Kingdom of
Algarve.*

The little kingdom of Algarve is that part of Portugal called, by some ancient authors, Cuneus, or *Wedge*, being really wedged in by the ocean on the west and south; on the east by the Guadiana, which parts it from Andalusia; on the north, by the mountains called Serra de Algaroc, and Serra de Monchique, which divide it from Alentejo; so that it is but ninety miles in length, where longest, and but twenty-eight in breadth, where broadest. The country, though in general mountainous, produces most sorts of fruits in abundance, but little corn. It is the

the least populous and wealthy part of Portugal, and has no remarkable towns or cities.

The history of Portugal is blended with that of Spain, until it was recovered from the Moors. Alphonso, sixth kind of Leon, having made a conquest of the northern provinces of Portugal, constituted Henry of Burgundy, a noble volunteer in these wars, earl of Portugal, in the year 1093. Alphonso, son of Henry, assumed the title of king in 1139, having recovered several other provinces from the Moors; and his successors continued the wars with the Infidels, till they reduced all Portugal. The crown continued in this line till the reign of Ferdinand, upon whose death John, his bastard brother, usurped the throne, in 1385. This prince invaded Africa, and took the port-town of Ceuta from the Moors. The Madeira islands, and the Azores or western islands, were also discovered in this reign, and added to the kingdom of Portugal; with the coast of Guinea; and, after a glorious reign of near fifty years, John left the crown to his son Edward. His grandson Alphonso invaded Morocco, and took the towns of Tangier, Arzilla, Alcaassar, and several others on the coast of Africa, from the Moors. John II. was the first prince who endeavoured to trace out a way to the East Indies round the coast of Africa: leaving no children, he was succeeded by his cousin Emanuel, who banished many of the Jews and Moors out of Portugal, and compelled those that remained there to profess Christianity, on pain of being made slaves. It was in this reign that Portugal arrived at the highest pitch of glory, for their fleets passed the Cape of Good Hope, the most southern promontory of Africa, and planted colonies in the East Indies, whereby they became sole masters of the traffic between India and Europe; which was before carried on through Egypt and the Turkish dominions, from whence the Venetians, Genoese, and other maritime powers in the Mediterranean, used to transport the Indian merchandize to Europe, and grew immentely rich and powerful by that traffic; but have been in a declining way ever since the Portuguese brought the riches of India to Europe by the route of the Cape. The Portuguese also possessed themselves of the rich country of Brasil, in South America. John III. the son of Emanuel, sent out a multitude of missionaries to convert the eastern nations, and among them was the famous Francis Xavier, who planted the Christian religion in India, Persia, China, and Japan, as well as on the coast of Africa, where the Portuguese

Portuguese have still numerous plantations and settlements; and he sent other missionaries to Brasil in America. His grandson don Sebastian transported a powerful army into Africa, at the instance of Muley Hamet, king of Morocco, who had been deposed by Muley Malucco; and joining Muley Hamet, they attacked the usurper with their united forces, but were defeated; and don Sebastian, with most of the Portuguese nobility, and Muley Hamet, the deposed prince, were killed in the field of battle. Muley Malucco the usurper died of a fever the same day. Don Sebastian, leaving no issue, was succeeded by cardinal Henry his uncle, the only surviving male of the royal family; and he dying after a short reign of two years, Philip II. of Spain possessed himself of the kingdom of Portugal, in the year 1580, which he claimed in right of his mother, though the Braganza family were deemed to have a better title to the crown.

Portugal remained under the dominion of Spain sixty years; and it was this that gave occasion to the Dutch, who had shaken off the Spanish yoke, to deprive the Portuguese of their settlements in the Indies, on the coast of Africa, and, in a great measure, of the Brasils; for the Spaniards looking upon Portugal as a conquered kingdom, took but little care of its concerns; and the Portuguese nobility, who had formerly shewn so much courage and constancy in the service of their native princes, were far from exerting themselves in the same manner for the support of strangers, who they plainly saw did not either use or wish them well. At last, tired out with the bad behaviour of those who were sent to govern them by the court of Madrid, they resolved to throw off the Spanish yoke at all events. John, duke of Braganza, grandson to that duke who was competitor with king Philip for the kingdom, was raised to the throne of Portugal by the title of John IV. His subjects were no less steady and constant in supporting him upon the throne, than they had been universally ready and willing to raise him to it, though the Spaniards maintained a long war in hopes of recovering this kingdom; and though the Dutch, notwithstanding they were then fighting for their own liberties against the same crown, prosecuted their designs in the Indies, and in Brasil, against the Portuguese. It is true that they lost several of their remaining settlements in Asia, and that it was with great difficulty they preserved Goa, Bombay, Diu, and a few inconsiderable places on the continent; but in the Brasils they had better fortune; the

the people preferred their government to that of the Dutch, and in a short time they recovered all they had lost in that quarter of the world.

We must observe that, while the Spaniards were masters of Portugal, their maxims of making the most of the kingdom, while in their hands, ruined the trade, sunk the naval power, and brought the Portuguese plantations almost to nothing. An equal and just government is necessary, not only to raise, but to preserve these advantages to any nation, since, whenever that is wanting, they droop, dwindle, and decay, like plants that remain unwatered, or children trusted to a mercenary nurse, that soon lose their flesh and colour, plain indications of the pains taken with them by an affectionate mother. To judge from effects may be a bad maxim in morality, but in politics it seldom fails.

John IV. died in 1651, without seeing an end of that war which his accession had occasioned. He left his dominions to his son Alphonso VI. then a child, under the tutelage of the queen-dowager his mother. By the peace of the Pyrenees, the French, who had hitherto been the warm, and almost the sole allies of Portugal, engaged to give that crown no farther assistance; but their great regard to their own interest induced them, in direct violation of that article, to send the Portuguese greater assistance than they had ever done, under the command of marshal Schombergh, an officer of such capacity, that it might be truly said his single person was equivalent to a small army. He reformed many abuses, and introduced a new discipline among the Portuguese troops; so that, notwithstanding they had the whole Spanish force to deal with, yet they bravely defended their liberties, and gained two such signal victories at Estremos and Villa Viciosa, as convinced their enemies, that the desire of freedom may over-balance superiority of numbers. At last, in 1668, the French king Lewis XIV. falling, contrary to the faith of treaties, with a great army upon the Low Countries, the Spaniards found themselves under a necessity of making peace with Portugal, which was done under the mediation of king Charles II. of Great Britain, who had married the infanta Catherine, daughter to king John, and sister to king Alphonso: by this treaty the crown of Spain renounced all her claims and pretensions to that of Portugal, and solemnly acknowledged the rights of the house of Braganza, which put an end to a disputed title, and restored peace to this country, after a
war,

war, or at least the interruption of peace, for the space of twenty-eight years.

Alphonso VI. having attained the years, though not the discretion of a man, resolved to take the government of his dominions into his own hands, though his mother had ruled with great prudence, and himself could not but be satisfied of his own incapacity, which is said to have been owing to a long indisposition, that so much weakened his abilities, both in body and mind, as to render him equally unfit for the duties of a king and of a husband. Those who had pushed him upon these designs, and had no other view than that of governing the kingdom at their own will under his name, began next to infuse jealousies of his brother don Pedro, the presumptive heir of the crown; and are also said to have engaged him in such other low and shameful intrigues, as obliged the queen, a princess of Savoy Nemours, after she had cohabited with him for six months, to retire to a convent for the preservation, as she affirmed, of her honour and her life.

The infant don Pedro, considering the incapacity of his brother, the confused state of public affairs, and his own great peril, determined, by the advice and with the assistance and consent of the principal nobility, to secure the person of the king, and to take upon himself the administration of the government. This was accordingly done, and not long after the queen left her convent, and a dispensation having been obtained from the court of Rome for that purpose, espoused the prince don Pedro, who removed Alphonso to the island of Tercera, where he kept him confined under a strong guard; but caused him to be treated with the tenderness which he owed his brother, and the respect that was due to a king. However, some malicious tongues, in a few years, reporting the contrary, the prince caused him to be brought back to the castle of Cintra, within a day's journey of Lisbon, and there, under an easy custody, he was served and respected as a king. The prince was persuaded by many to assume that title himself, but inflexibly declined it, contenting himself with that of regent till his brother died, which was in 1683.

King Pedro had by his first queen, who had been his brother's wife, only one daughter, and by his second the princess Maria Sophia, daughter to the elector palatine John, prince of Brasil, and the infants don Francis, don Antonio, and don Emanuel. Don Pedro continued for many years to govern his subjects with great justice and
moderation.

moderation. A little before the peace of Ryswick, he offered his mediation to Lewis XIV. but received such an answer, as shewed plainly enough that France was resolved to reject it with a kind of disdain. The Portuguese monarch thought fit to pass by the affront for the present; but it afterwards cost France dear. When Philip V. mounted the throne of Spain, the friendship of Portugal became not only expedient but necessary. Upon this occasion, Lewis XIV. was as obliging and civil as he had formerly shewn himself haughty and proud; and though don Pedro had already resolved on the part he was to take, yet considering how soon, and how easily he might be crushed by the forces of the two crowns, he entered into an alliance with king Philip, and this for various reasons. In the first place, it gained time, and delivered him from present danger; in the next it gave an opportunity of gaining good terms, which might be of use to him on another occasion; and, lastly, he obtained by it some present advantages, which were very beneficial to his subjects. But as soon as the general confederacy was formed against France, and it clearly appeared that the allies meant to set up another king of Spain, the Portuguese monarch demanded of the French king, pursuant to a late alliance, a fleet of thirty sail of the line, and a large sum of money. He knew well enough, that as things then stood, those demands could not be complied with; but he wanted a pretence for breaking that treaty, without breaking faith, and this did his business very effectually; for as soon as the fleet of the allies appeared upon his coast, he thought fit to declare himself neuter, and not long after made a treaty with Charles III. but before any steps could be taken for prosecuting the war, he was removed by death, December 9th, 1706, when he had lived fifty-eight, and from the death of his brother, had reigned twenty-three years.

John V. succeeded his father, and pursued his steps very exactly, notwithstanding the Spaniards surpris'd the town of Alcantara, and made the garrison prisoners of war, almost before he was settled in the throne. The assistance he gave the allies brought the Spanish monarchy twice to the brink of ruin; and though most of our accounts say, that the Portuguese soldiers behaved but indifferently in that war, yet this ought not to be understood as a national reflection, farther than as long peace, great wealth, and much luxury, are capable of corrupting any people. While the war continued, the commerce of the
Brazils

Brazil began to grow much more considerable than in former times, by the working of the gold mines; and, as there was at that time a great intercourse between the two nations, the British traders obtained a large share of that gold for the commodities and manufactures with which they furnished the Portuguese. King John could not help seeing this with concern; he thought it hard they should have but a sight of the vast wealth derived from their own settlements, and that it should immediately vanish, as it were, out of Portugal into another country. His ministers were exactly of their master's opinion, and many consultations were held about finding a speedy and effectual remedy for what they considered as the greatest grievance. At length it was concluded, that the only method that could be taken was to prohibit the wear of foreign manufactures; and this had certainly been put in execution, if lord Galway, the commander of our forces in that country, though a Frenchman by birth, had not prevented it. He was a great favourite with his Portuguese majesty, and esteemed to be, as he certainly was, a very honest man. To him, therefore, as to a friend, and under the strictest injunction of secrecy, the king communicated this affair, and asked his advice about it. His lordship told him fairly, that the remedy would be worse than the disease; that the same Providence which had given his subjects gold, had bestowed commodities and manufactures upon the English; that the exchange therefore was not so injurious as he imagined; and that, by prohibiting commerce, he might force those that were now his best friends, to become his enemies, and to employ their naval power, which he knew to be so much superior to his own, in taking that by force for which they now gave a proper equivalent. He farther represented that, whatever turn the war might take, Portugal must always stand in need of the friendship of England, to prevent becoming dependent on the house of Austria or the house of Bourbon; and therefore it was much better that his subjects should trade with those from whom he had so much to hope, than with other nations from whom he had all things to fear. The king, who was both a reasonable and a just prince, and who in this business acted solely from a laudable affection for his subjects, comprehended the force of these arguments, and immediately laid aside a project, which, how plausible soever in its first appearance, was certainly at the bottom neither equitable nor practicable. Happy for the world if all kings meant

as well, deliberated as coolly, and were as ready to receive and follow good advice.

The two crowns of Spain and Portugal were not reconciled thoroughly till the year 1737; and from this period they became every day more united, which gave much satisfaction to some courts, and no umbrage to any. In this situation of things, a treaty was made in 1750, with the court of Madrid, by which Nova Colonia, on the river of Plata, was yielded to his Catholic majesty, to the great regret of the Portuguese, as well on account of the value of that settlement, as because they apprehended their possession of the Brasils would by this action be rendered precarious. On the last of July the same year, this monarch, worn out by infirmities, deceased, in the sixty-first year of his age, and in the forty-fourth of his reign.

Don Joseph, prince of Brasil, succeeded him, to the universal satisfaction of his subjects, and with as great expectations as ever any monarch that mounted the throne. It was generally believed that he would make considerable alterations, in which he did not disappoint the hopes of the public; and yet they were done so slowly, with such moderation, and with so many circumstances of prudence, as hindered all grounds of complaint. Amongst other new regulations, the power of the inquisition suffered some restriction; the king directing, that none of their sentences should be put in execution till reviewed and approved by his privy-council. But as in the reign of his father he had consented to the treaty with Spain, he ratified it after his accession, and since carried it into execution upon this noble principle, that no considerations of interest ought ever to induce a monarch to break his word.

However, within the space of the few years of this king's reign, the calamities of Portugal in general, and those of the city of Lisbon in particular, cannot, in a great degree, be paralleled in all history. An earthquake, a fire, a famine, an assassination-plot against their prince, executions upon executions, the scaffolds and wheels for torture reeking with the noblest blood; imprisonment after imprisonment of the greatest and most distinguished personages; the expulsion of a chief order of ecclesiastics, the invasion of their kingdom by a powerful, stronger, and exasperated nation; the numerous troops of the enemy laying waste their territory, bringing fire and sword with them, and rolling, like distant thunder, towards the

the gates of their capital; their prince ready almost to save himself by flight! The Spanish ministry had already decreed the doom of Portugal, and nothing was to be heard at the Escorial, but *Delenda est Carthago*. Carthaginian, perhaps, or Jewish story, may possibly afford a scene something like this, but, for the shortness of the period, not so big with events, though in their final destruction, superior. From that, indeed, under the hand of Providence, the national humanity and generosity of Great Britain has preserved the Portuguese; and it remains now to be seen, in future treaties, how that people will express their gratitude. Those who are able to search deeper into human affairs, may assign the causes of such a wonderful chain of events; but no wise man will ascribe all this to so singular a cause as that which a Spaniard has done, in a famous pamphlet, printed in the year 1762, at Madrid. It is entitled a Spanish Prophecy, and endeavours to shew, that all these calamities have befallen the Portuguese, solely on account of their connection with the heretic English. The great Ruler and Governor of the world undoubtedly acts by universal laws, regarding the whole system, and cannot, without blasphemy, be considered in the light of a partizan. The rest of the pamphlet tends to shew, that his Catholic majesty carried his arms into Portugal, solely to give them liberty, and set them free from English tyranny.

Joseph dying without male issue, the succession devolved to Mary, his daughter, now Queen of Portugal. She was married some time before he died, with the pope's dispensation, to his brother don Pedro.

*Interests,
political
and com-
mercial of
Portugal.*

As for the interests of Portugal, they may be divided into political, with regard to their possessions in Europe; and commercial, with respect to their dominions in Asia, Africa, and America. As to the first, there is no doubt that it consists in maintaining peace; a point, to which his late majesty remained always well inclined, and thereby preserved quiet to his subjects in the midst of all the broils of Europe. But, as the family-compact of the house of Bourbon, towards the close of the late war, threatened the destruction of Portugal, and may hereafter do the same, that kingdom is under a necessity of living upon good terms with the maritime powers, and more especially with Great Britain. It is, indeed, saying no more than truth, that there is scarce any instance in history of a more lasting and sincere friendship than has subsisted, for near a century past, between the two crowns;

crowns; and, indeed, it is their mutual interest that it should subsist; so that while it continues, and while Great Britain maintains her superiority at sea, Portugal can hardly ever be in danger. The safety, independency, and prosperity of Portugal, must depend either upon her maintaining a strict conjunction with her natural allies, or upon her acquiring a strength sufficient to maintain herself, without having recourse to any foreign assistance; but, as the latter is a thing very difficult to do, so beyond all question, till it can be brought about, it will never be good policy in this crown to run any hazard as to the former. Till Portugal, therefore, acquires a naval force superior to that of her neighbours, she must, in some measure, depend upon that of Great Britain, and consequently, it is directly contrary to her true interest to take any step whatever that may be either prejudicial to that force upon which her own safety depends, or which may weaken those ties experience has shewn to have been hitherto strong enough, upon any emergency, to entitle her to that assistance.

As to the commercial interest of the Portuguese, it lies now chiefly in the West, as it did formerly in the East Indies; and, in respect to Brazil, their strength is so great, that they have no reason to apprehend any thing from their neighbours: the only danger to which they are exposed is from an insurrection of their own Negroes, which might, indeed, have very bad consequences. In the present state of things, this colony is the most profitable in the world, since, considering the proportion between the two kingdoms, Portugal draws more profit from her Brasils than Spain from both Mexico and Peru. It is otherwise in regard of Asia, where, from an empire of almost incredible extent, the Portuguese dominion is in a manner shrunk within the narrow bounds of the little peninsula, at the point of which stands the city of Goa. Their traffic on the south coast of Africa is still very considerable.

In the whole, it may be said, that whatever affects the commerce between Great Britain and Portugal, operates to the disadvantage of both, as well by lessening naval force, which depends upon trade, as by weakening the connections that unite the two nations, of equal consequence to both. We ought to support Portugal, because it is our interest to preserve her independent. But still it is not our interest to do it more than other European na-

tions; for they are all as much interested as we are in the preservation of the balance of power in the South as well as in the North; and they have, besides, all advantages in common with us in the commerce of that country. Hamburgh enjoys almost as great a trade with Portugal as England does: Holland a very great one; and so do Sweden and Denmark; and yet all of them sat as indifferent spectators during the last scene of the troubles of Portugal. Hence may be seen the insignificance of the plea urged by interested people with regard to Portugal that was before urged with regard to Hanover; which is, that it was an invasion in consequence of her connections with us. But the cases are not parallel, nor are the pleas in either sufficient; for France did not enter Germany in the late war as the foe of Hanover, having not declared war against that state; nor had Spain any right to force Portugal from her desired neutrality. It is well known, that the present catholic king considers himself as lineal heir, in right of his mother, to the crown of Portugal; and it was long ago foreseen, and foretold, that he would seize the first favourable opportunity that offered for asserting that claim. This opportunity offered from the then embroiled state of Europe, the distressed condition of France, which constrained her for her own safety, to be an assistant in a project that she otherwise would have opposed with all her might; our own too much exhausted condition; the mercenary disposition of the Dutch, which influences their inattention to every thing but the security of present gain; and, above all, the weakness of Portugal, from her preceding great calamity. These were the motives that induced Spain to attack Portugal. It was no war with her upon our account. Spain rather forced a war with us, in order to form a pretence for attacking and seizing Portugal.

Government and laws of Portugal; and genius, &c. of the inhabitants.

The king of Portugal may be now considered, as well as the king of Spain, as an absolute prince. The cortes have long since sold their part in the legislature to the crown, and only serve to confirm or record such acts of state as the court resolves upon; to declare the next heir to the crown when the king is pleased to nominate him, or to ratify treaties with foreign princes, who may still deem their consent of any weight. The laws of Portugal are all contained in three small volumes; and are founded on the civil law, and their particular customs. As to the genius, customs, manners, &c. of the Portuguese,

guese, they resemble those of Spain, of which they were a province. Their religion is the same, and there are a proportionable number of convents. A patriarchate has lately been erected at Lisbon, which is the only difference between the ecclesiastical government of Spain and Portugal.

S E C T. IV.

Of France.

THE kingdom of France is most advantageously situated in the middle of the temperate zone, and extends from the 42d degree and half of latitude to the 51st; containing in breadth, according to the observations and calculations of some of the members of their Royal Academy of Sciences, about 13 degrees of longitude; namely, from the extremity of Brittany, near the island of Ushant, that is, from Conquet, which lies 5 degrees west of London, to Strasburg in Alsace, which is about 8 degrees east of London: France therefore contains in length, from the Pyrenean mountains in the south to Dunkirk in the north, 8 degrees and a half, that is, 170 leagues, or 510 miles, reckoning twenty leagues, or 60 miles to a degree of longitude; and in breadth, from the uttermost point in Brittany to Strasburg in Alsace, about 165 leagues, or 495 miles; but its breadth decreases considerably, going from Brest to the south, and to the north. On the north, it is separated from England by the British channel; on the north-east it is contiguous to the Netherlands; on the east it borders on Germany, Switzerland, Savoy, and Piedmont, from the last of which it is separated by the Alps; on the south it is bounded by the Mediterranean Sea, and by the Pyrenean mountains, which divide it from Spain; and on the west it is surrounded by the ocean.

*Situation,
extent, and
boundaries
of France.*

The air is very temperate and wholesome, and not subject to the great cold of Germany, Sweden, and Muscovy, nor to the excessive heats of Spain and Italy; but it is more or less hot or cold, according to the different situation of the several provinces. In the southern parts, as in Dauphiné, Provence, and Languedoc, the winters are generally very sharp, but do not continue long; and the seasons in France are much more regular than they are in England. There is no country in Europe, says la Martiniere, more beautiful, nor more pleasant to live in

*Air, fertility, and
produce.*

than France. There you may behold high mountains, the Pyrenees, the Alps, the mountains of the Sevens, of Auvergne, and some others, together with several fine rivers which run through it, and render it very fruitful. It abounds with corn, fruit, wine, oil, herds of cattle, tame, and wild fowl, hemp, and flax; the sea-coast furnishes the inhabitants with abundance of fish, and with a quantity of salt sufficient for them and their neighbours. There are also mines of lead, iron, and copper; and some gold and silver; but these are not suffered to be worked, because the profit would not answer the expence. The salt is chiefly made in the isle of Rhée, about Rochfort, and on the coast of Saintonge.

How divided.

The kingdom of France was generally divided by geographers into twelve governments; but, as the number is much larger, we shall follow, for greater accuracy, father Buffier's account, who reckons thirty distinct governments, each of which has a particular governor independent of all other persons but the king. Of these thirty governments, there are eighteen in the circuit of the kingdom, and twelve in the middle. Those in the circuit may be divided into four parts, according to the four cardinal points of east, south, west, and north.

On the east, are five governments, namely, 1. Alsace; 2. Franche Comté; 3. Burgundy; 4. Lyonnois; and 5. Dauphiné.

On the south, are also five governments, as, 1. Provence; 2. Languedoc; 3. Roussillon; 4. the county, or earldom of Foix; and 5. Bearn.

On the west, are the same number of governments, which are, 1. Guienne; 2. Saintonge, annexed to Angoumois; 3. the county of Aunis; 4. Poitou; and 5. Brittany.

On the north there are but three governments, but equal at least, in extent, to five of the others; these are, 1. Normandy; 2. Picardy; and 3. French Flanders.

The twelve governments in the middle of France may be considered as placed on the three sides of a triangle, the point of which is towards the south, on the borders of Auvergne and Limousin; and thus we find four governments on each side of the triangle, viz.

On the east, 1. Champagne; 2. Nivernois; 3. Bourbonnois; and 4. Auvergne.

On the west, reckoning from Auvergne, 1. Limousin; 2. la Marche; 3. Berry; and 4. Touraine.

Towards the north, 1. Anjou; 2. Maine; 3. Orleanois; and 4. the Ile of France.

It would lead us beyond the bounds we have prescribed ourselves, to describe the particular provinces, counties, districts, or cities, contained in each of these governments; so that we shall content ourselves in regard to France, which is an extensive country, with taking a cursory view of its principal sea-port towns, and some other places of note, first giving a general idea of its particular subjects and articles of trade and commerce.

The productions of France, as subjects of trade, are, *Productions and manufactures of France, as subjects of trade.* 1. Wines of Champagne, Burgundy, Bourdeaux, Rochelle, Nantes, and other places on the Loire. 2. The produce of the wines, as brandy of Bourdeaux, Nantes and Rochelle Vinegar, and lees of wines. 3. Fruit, such as prunes and prunelloes, dried grapes, pears, and apples, in Normandy; oranges and olives in Languedoc and Provence. 4. Corn, salt, hemp, flax, silk, rosin, oil, cork. 5. Kid skins in abundance, perfumes, extracted oils, drugs, and chemical preparations. 6. They have also minerals and metals of divers kinds, and are daily discovering others; and they are become great artists in the smelting and refining them, and perform these operations to as great perfection as any other country.

The manufactures of France are, 1. Silks, as lustrings, alamodes, sarsenets, broad, flowered, and brocaded silks, velvets. 2. Woollen manufactures, in imitation of those of England, which are chiefly carried on in Normandy, Poictou, Languedoc, Provence, Guienne, and some other parts. 3. Linen, such as Normandy canvas, sail-cloth, at Vitry, and other places; doulassés at Morlaix, and fine linens and lace in the inland provinces. 4. Paper of all sorts. 5. Tapestry, which they make very rich and fine in Picardy, and near Paris. 6. Soap, which they chiefly make in Provence, and which is so considerable an article, that when their crop of oil fails, they fetch a prodigious quantity from the Levant to supply the soap-makers. The French have, for some years past, obtained the secret from Spain of making Castile soap, as it is called, and have set up very large manufactures thereof both at Marseilles and Toulon, and have thereby beat the Spaniards out of that valuable branch of trade. Nor is this the only benefit which France receives by this manufacture; for, as one of the chief ingredients of making this soap, is Levantine olive-oil, together with the ingredients of sofa and barilla, their large vent for their soap gives them

them the advantage of constant back-freights from the Levant, with these oils; which, it seems, has proved one great, if not the only means of the French advancing their Turkey trade upon the ruin of our's: for, we having no such manufacture of Castile soap, that will consume such quantities of Levant oil as the French, we can neither trade with the Turks so much to their advantage as the French do, nor so much to our own, as if our Turkey traders had the like benefit by constant back-freights.

*Island
trade of
France.*

As France is certainly the most populous and extensive kingdom in Europe, so its inland traffic is proportionate, and, in many particulars, far beyond any country in Europe; being carried on with great ease and little expence, by means of many large navigable rivers. Five rivers empty themselves into the Seine, and this so near to Paris, that goods are brought thither from some of the remotest parts by these rivers. These are the Mairne, Aisne, Logn, Oyse, Yonne; besides the canals of Orleans and Briere, and by them from the Loire; also up the Seine, by Rouen, from the sea: so that, by these rivers, the traders of Paris can receive heavy goods from most of the northern parts of France, also from Lorrain, Burgundy, Picardy, Normandy, and Britany, at very easy rates. The Loire, without comparison the largest river in France, and the farthest navigable, and on which stand the largest and most capital cities of the kingdom, Paris excepted, conveys their wines down from all the wine-making provinces to Nantes, and, in return, furnishes those countries with all necessary goods for the merchants and traders of those parts. The Rhone, an inland river of a long course, takes in the Soane and the Doux from Burgundy, and the Durance from Dauphiné, and supplies all the province of Languedoc, as well as Burgundy, and the Swiss cantons, with merchandize from all parts of the world. The Garonne does the same in Guienne, Gascoigne, Poictou, and French Navarre. But the home-trade of France, which well deserves our regard, is their coasting trade by sea, in order to bring the product of the south parts of France to those of the north, for the supply of the great city of Paris, and of all the northern provinces; and this, indeed, is a very considerable, as well as material part of their trade; and, next to the coal trade of England, is, perhaps, the greatest article of its kind in Europe, and employs more ships and more people. The principal ports for this commerce are the cities of Bourdeaux and Rouen; but many other places share

in

in the trade by the way, both in the out-loading, and in the returns. The first ships are loaded at Bourdeaux with wines and fruits of all sorts, and all other products of the southern provinces; and there setting out in a fleet, and under convoy, in time of war, stop at St. Martin's, and the Isle of Rhée. Here they are joined by the ships from Rochelle, laden also with wines and fruits of all kinds, as well as with corn, which the adjacent country supplies. Hence they proceed to the coast of Britany, and anchoring at Belleisle, are joined by another fleet from Nantes, Sherrant, and St. Malo, laden with white wines, brandy, and corn; though generally the ships from Nantes, &c. take care to be ready for the convoy, and to be at Belleisle before them. The fleet thus gathered, and sometimes even during a war, make up from a hundred and fifty to two hundred sail, and they proceed to the mouth of the Seine. The ships designed for the trade of Paris put in at Havre, and, taking the opportunity of winds and tides, make the best of their way up to Rouen, while the rest separate for their respective ports, as Caen, Dieppe, St. Valery, Bologne, Calais, Dunkirk, &c. these are the chief ports where they unload. The gross of their loading is delivered in this manner; and from these places the wines are dispersed over all the northern provinces of France and the Netherlands; for Dunkirk being a free port, all the merchandizes destined for Flanders, on board these coasting vessels, are dispersed from Dunkirk by the canals and rivers with which that country abounds. Nor is this coasting-trade only thus considerable in one fleet, but it is passing and repassing all the year, especially in the autumn after the vintage.

It would be endless to enumerate the cities and towns which supply Paris, with their manufactures; but though the commerce of this royal city is mighty considerable, yet being no sea-port, it is not the centre of the trade of the whole country, as is the case of London, Amsterdam, and some others of the principal cities in Europe; nor is it possible to be so, the extent of the country being so exceeding great. However, Paris being the most populous city in France, there being, as computed, near a million of people, and near half as many more in the adjacent towns, for ten or twelve miles round it; this great confluence of people must necessarily cause a proportionable accumulation of provision and merchandizes, brought as well by the Seine, as by other rivers, from the remotest countries

in France. And though there is no trade of malt in France, which makes so great an article in the corn trade of England, the French, drinking little malt liquor throughout the kingdom; yet, as the French usually eat more than double, if not treble the quantity of bread, in their ordinary way of diet than the English do, so the quantity of wheat and barley may rise something in proportion, and, perhaps, near equal to that of both wheat and malt in England, considering the number of people in both countries. The quantity of corn produced therefore in France, in a plentiful year, must be extremely great; and then they supply Germany, Switzerland, Geneva, and several other parts with corn: yet, if either an extraordinary hot or wet summer happens, their crop is injured, and a scarcity ensues; and they are less able to support the want of corn than other countries, and are much more oppressed on such occasions than the English would be, who, having so plentiful a supply of flesh, roots, and malt liquor, are able to live with the least bread of any nation in Europe. In these times of scarcity in France, the greatest quantity of corn brought to Paris comes up the Seine, being imported at Rouen, and other ports not far from that river, from England or Holland; or else at Nantes, and brought up the Loire by the canals before mentioned.

There is another centre of inland commerce in France, which has not an immediate communication with Paris by water, except by a very long circuit, and that is in the south and south-east parts of France, and the centre of this trade may be placed at Lyons; for Lyons is seated, in some respects, in regard to commerce, like Paris; it is nearly at the same distance from the sea, and upon as great, or rather a greater river, though not so happily navigable as that part next the sea, by reason of the violence of the current, and the weakness of the tides. As the navigation, however, respects inland commerce chiefly, it is happily supplied by the canal of Martigues, so that there is no want of larger shipping; and, for goods of foreign importation, they are conveyed by the ports of Marseilles in Provence, and that of Cette in Languedoc, sufficient for that part of the trade. The confluence of the Soane and the Rhofne, which meet at Lyons, gives an advantage of inland navigation to that city, from a very great extent of the country round. The first receiving the river Doux from Burgundy, and even from the frontiers,

tiers of Alsace, commands all the trade of that part of France, till they come so near the Loire and the Seine, that a small voiture by land makes a communication that way; and the manufactures of this part of France are conveyed, by either of these rivers, into the north parts of France, and to Paris itself. Nor on the west side is it above eight leagues, till meeting with the waters of the Lot, a navigable stream in the Gevaudan, which runs into the Garonne, their goods are likewise conveyed to Bourdeaux by water, and from thence by sea, not only to Paris but to England; also to Holland, and most other parts of the world. Next to the Soane and the Doux, which particularly maintain a trade with that part of Burgundy called the Franche Comté, the navigation of the Rhosne itself brings to Lyons all the commerce of the city and lake of Geneva, and all the adjacent cantons of the Swiss; from whence there is a great and constant return of trade, especially from the city of Geneva, which particularly manages the rest of the trade from all the Swiss cantons, and brings to Lyons abundance of manufactures, as well from Switzerland as from the Rhine, by the navigation of the Aar and other rivers; whereby Geneva has a communication with the Upper Alsace, Suabia, and other parts of Germany. Also, by the Durance, a large river, and, though very rapid, yet made useful for part of its channel, the trade is supplied into Dauphiné and Provence, even to the mountains of Pignerol, and thence to the Po, and by that river into Piedmont and Italy. It may be here observed, in regard to Lyons, that the distance from the rivers Soane and Rhosne to the Loire, the Seine and the Garonne, by which the communication is maintained with Bourdeaux, Nantes, Paris, and other parts of the kingdom of France, make the trade of that city not so difficult as it would otherwise be; and so again, for Lyons receiving the Turkey raw silk, and Italian thrown silk, &c. is likewise easy from Marseilles to Avignon, where it is embarked on the Rhosne, or from Marseilles to Martigues. This commodiousness for inland commerce is exceeding beneficial to Lyons, and renders it a city of very great consequence to the kingdom; for, as Paris is to the north of France, so is Lyons to all the southern provinces, as Dauphiné, Provence, all the Upper Languedoc, Burgundy, or the Franche Comté, Neuchatel, and also Geneva, Savoy, and the Swiss Cantons. By the same inland navigation, the city of Lyons drives a very considerable trade in the woollen manufactures made

made in Languedoc, about Nîmes, Beaucaire, and other places; and which are brought up the Rhosne at the proper seasons, and sold at the fair at Lyons. In like manner, the wines of Burgundy, and of Champagne also, are brought down the Soane and the Doux to Lyons, and sent from thence to all the principal cities of Languedoc and Guienne.

*Foreign
trade of
France.*

We shall now consider how the kingdom of France is situated in regard to its coasts for foreign trade; and how extensively she carries the same on in Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. The French coast in the Mediterranean sea begins opposite to Perpignan, which is the first city on that side, under the French government; and the first port in France, on this side, though of no consequence, is port Vendre. Perpignan is a frontier of Roussillon by land, and of importance, in case of a war against Spain; on which account the French have made it very strong. The sea, on the coast of Roussillon, and onward to Montpellier, is called the gulf of Narbonne.

Narbonne.

The city of Narbonne is particularly famous for the finishing that great work of a navigation between the two seas, that is, the joining the Cantabrian and the Mediterranean sea together, by a canal. This work was set on foot by Lewis XIV. a prince born for great undertakings. It was fifteen years in completing, from 1666 to 1681, and cost an immense sum. All difficulties were surmounted; vallies were filled up, mountains and hills levelled, and the boats continue to pass and repass with great ease, for the benefit of commerce. Between the river Aude, and the mouth of the Rhosne, there lies, parallel with the sea, a lake thirty miles long, and from three to five broad, extending from the river Eraut, and the city of Agde west, almost to the mouth of the Rhosne east. Agde is a small city on the river Eraut. The port is small; yet they have some ships, and they export wine and oil; and, within these thirty years, their trade has increased. In the middle of this lake there is an opening into the sea, which makes a very good port called Cette. Here ships of burden may come in; and, the royal canal being carried on from Narbonne to Agde, the merchandize, which is brought from Italy to be sent by the canal to Bourdeaux, is generally landed at Cette; and thence carried, by the lake, to Agde, and put on board barges for the canal.

Marseilles.

Between Cette and Marseilles, the great river Rhosne empties itself into the sea. The fame of the city of Marseilles

seilles for commerce is well known all over the world. It is, indeed, the only trading city and port of note in the south of France. It lies about fifty leagues east of Narbonne. The harbour is spacious and good, and receives the largest ships, though sometimes the biggest are obliged to lighten their loading a little before they come in. The city is fine, large, populous, and rich, and is rendered so particularly by its commerce; the whole Italian and Turkey trade of France being carried on here. Lewis XIV. as he well knew the importance of this city, so he took it into his particular favour, and gave such directions for beautifying it, and for encouraging men of trade and business to resort to it, that Marseilles became quite a new city to what it had been. The key is said to be one of the finest in the world, except that of Seville in Spain. The fortifications are so prodigiously strong, that no others scarce equal them: by sea, nothing can hurt the city, and by land, it would require one hundred thousand men to attack it in form. But, after it was visited with a plague in 1723, this city suffered a great eclipse, and its commerce decayed for near a twelve-month unspeakably, not a ship being suffered to pass or repass, nor would any nation admit them to come into their ports; so that the poor were left to starve, and the sailors perished miserably at sea; but it has since surprisingly recovered itself, and now daily advances in commerce. The French trade to Turkey and Egypt, as also to the coast of Africa, and to all the islands of the Arches, centers at Marseilles. They have also a considerable trade to Venice, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Sicily; and they have consuls at almost all the islands and ports in the Mediterranean, Marseilles being the only city of France for trading in those seas; but above all for the Turkey trade in general, wherein, at present, they exceed all other nations, and have surprisingly supplanted the English.

Toulon, a port-town of Provence, is situate on a bay of *Toulon.* the Mediterranean sea, twenty-five miles south-east of Marseilles. It has the most secure and capacious harbour of any port in France. Here the largest ships of the royal navy of France are built and stationed, and here vast magazines of all manner of naval stores and timber for shipping are repositied. Here likewise are the finest docks and yards, for the sitting out and furnishing ships of war, in the whole world perhaps. In Toulon, there are academies for the marine guards, where they are taught navigation; and there is a royal foundery for cannon and mortars, and
all

all manner of utensils for cannoneers and bombardeers. They had in the harbour of Toulon, when the confederates laid siege to it in 1707, sixteen first rate men of war, eight second rates, twenty-four third rates, and six fourth rates; all which the English had very probably taken, if the Germans had not detached fifteen thousand men to Naples, which were intended to constitute part of the army to form that siege. From hence to the coast of Nice, and the frontiers of the dominions of the duke of Savoy, France affords nothing considerable.

*Isles of
Hieres.*

The isles of Hieres lie off the coast, under the west part of which there is a good road for the largest ships; and where the English fleet lay many months in 1744, and blocked up the French and Spanish fleets in the harbour of Toulon; and, on their quitting that harbour, the combined fleets were engaged by admiral Matthews, before whom they fled to the coast of Spain, and would have been destroyed, if he had not been deserted by one of the English admirals, and several of his captains: but, on the shore, no towns of note, or ports of trade, are found, till we come to the cape of Antibes, on the east side of which lies the city of Antibes, the last in France. It lies at the bottom of a small gulf; but the harbour is not very good, nor is the trade considerable.

On the coast of France, from Dunkirk to St. Malo's, and from thence to St. Sebastian, are,

Dunkirk.

Dunkirk, once a very formidable place for strength, and terrible to all Europe; but its fortifications were destroyed by the treaty of Utrecht, and being since in a great measure re-instated, were again to undergo the same fate by the treaty of Paris, in 1763. Nothing supports this town at present, but its being a free port, and the neighbourhood of the city of Lille; which, being a rich and great city, and, for its wealth and number of people, called Little Paris, has no other port but that of Dunkirk to carry on its trade at.

Calais.

Calais is the easternmost town of the ancient kingdom of France, and was once a very considerable place, being long contended for between the crowns of England and France; but the port, not being capable of receiving ships of burden, has very little trade, unless in the smuggling way by small craft.

Boulogne.

Boulogne is a large town, and stands on the sea-shore; but as the river is small, is no port of any consequence. It lies in a large bay bearing its own name. The channel is here thirty miles over, reckoning from about Romney, in Kent

Kent to the bottom of the bay of Boulogne. There are some merchants here, and it is particularly eminent for the manufacturing trade, but highly injurious to Great Britain for one article of it, the bringing of English wool over from Romney Marsh, in Kent; a trade which the French find so much their account in, that they have long experienced it to be their interest to give great encouragement to the English smugglers; and all the vigilance of the government, which has been remarkably severe upon this occasion, has not been able to put an effectual stop to it, though it is certainly of late very greatly checked. As Romney Marsh is the place where it is ordinarily shipped off, so the town of Boulogne, and the coast all along the bay, from Boulogne to the mouth of the Soane, the principal river of Picardy, is the usual place where it is brought on shore. Nor have the French the advantage of the English wool only, but it is observable, that they have constantly many English workmen among them, especially such as we call in England master-manufacturers; and these being brought over from England by the influence of extraordinary rewards and encouragements, and having the English wool to work on, have brought the French to a proficiency in the woollen manufactory, that may in time prove the ruin of the like trade of this kingdom.

Dieppe is a fine town, and the best for trade next to Dunkirk on this part of the French coast. Before the late war, they had in particular a considerable trade to Newfoundland, and to the French settlements in North America. Their ships often unlade at Havre, in the Seine, for the convenience of sending their cargoes up the river to Rouen and Paris. However, when they are unladen they come with more ease into the haven of Dieppe to lay up, where they have water enough when they are in, and are laid safe. The seamen of Dieppe are accounted the best sailors in France. *Dieppe.*

Rouen, being the sea-port to Paris, becomes of course a great, rich, and flourishing city. Its trade is extraordinary, and consists of divers branches, in respect both to its foreign as well as home parts, especially in the linen and woollen manufactures, and in the latter more eminently. It has a great trade with Ireland, particularly for leather, butter, tallow, and other products of that country. Its coasting trade has been already mentioned. *Rouen.*

Havre de Grace stands at the mouth of the Seine, and is said to be the port to the city of Rouen, as Rouen is to the *Havre de Grace.*

the city of Paris, the merchants here laying up their ships, which are too large to go up so far in the river. It has the most considerable share in the fishing trade of any port in France, principally to Newfoundland, the North Seas, and for the herring-fishery, not only in the Channel, but on the back of the sands off Yarmouth; and since the French king laid high duties on the Yarmouth fish, they have wonderfully improved in curing them in the Yarmouth way, to our no little detriment.

Caen.

Caen is the first port beyond the mouth of the Seine west. It is a small port, but a pretty large city, and, having a communication with the English Channel, does not want commerce, though not to the advantage of England. The navigation of this coast, as far as the island of Alderney, is safe and easy; afterwards, there is need of good pilots.

St. Malo.

St. Malo is a city of commerce, and inferior to none that France has in the ocean. The road for shipping and the harbour, are safe and convenient, which, with the commodious situation, open to the British channel, make it a place of the best trade to France on this coast; the merchants here, particularly in the wars of queen Anne, were some of the richest in all France, being deeply embarked in the South Sea trade at that time. In our late wars with France, their privateers have proved a great grievance to us by frequent captures of our merchant ships. It was before the last war but one a flourishing place of trade, especially for the Newfoundland fishery, also to Martinico, to Quebec, and, indeed, to most of the French colonies in America. It is situate in the bottom of a large bay, extending from cape La Hogue to the Seven Isles, after which the land falls away to cape Ushant. Between these lies the town of

Morlaix.

Morlaix, at the mouth of a river of the same name. It is large and beautiful, full of people and trade, the port good, the channel deep, and ships of above a hundred tons come up to the key. The best printing and writing paper in France is said to be made here. In fine, the increase of commerce has greatly increased the wealth, the splendor, the happiness, of the place, which are ever the invariable effects of it.

Brest.

Brest is a place of consequence upon this coast, being the largest and most capacious road and harbour that France is possessed of on the ocean. It is also the best defended, and safest harbour in France. Here the French fleets are oftentimes laid up, though the greatest of their
men

men of war generally go to Toulon. Here are warehouses and magazines to lay up naval stores for a hundred sail of ships of war of the line, and some of eighty and ninety guns have been built here. France, in the year 1696, had a royal navy at Brest, equal, if not superior, to all the naval power of England and Holland united. It offered them battle, which they declined. The inlet of the sea, which forms the harbour of Brest, is very large, the waters every way deep, and the anchorage good.

The next place of consequence, on this coast, is the mouth of the river Loire. The towns of note on or near the Loire, below the canal of Orleans, and before it comes to Nantes, are Orleans, Blois, Amboise, Tours, Saumur, and Angers, all of them large trading cities. No country, except the Netherlands, can shew seven such cities, on the banks of one river, under one sovereign, and in so small a compass of territory.

*Mouth of
the Loire.*

Rochelle, on this coast of the ocean, is a considerable port of trade, though unfortified, for reasons too well known. This city was once the strongest in the whole kingdom, and, on account of its opulence and splendor, for years the bulwark of the French Protestants. It supported their interest in the civil wars in France, during five kings reigns, and at length defended itself with almost incredible bravery and resolution, against the whole power of France, the French king, Lewis XIII. besieging it in person: nor would the Rochellers have been reduced at last, if we may credit history, had not the Dutch, though Protestants, and some English ships too, been hired by the French to master their fleet, and deprive them of assistance by sea; whereas they were before masters of the sea, and all the naval power of France was not able to match them. But their fleet being beaten, and the promised succours of the English failing, cardinal Richelieu contrived a sea-wall to be made, and carried it on with invincible industry, to block up their harbour. Thus being deprived of all relief, they were obliged to submit, by the extremity of famine, thirty thousand people having perished here, in the year 1628, for want of bread. Though Rochelle, on this occasion, lost all its privileges, the Protestant religion being banished the place, and its fortifications demolished, it continued afterwards, and still does, to be a place of considerable trade, full of wealthy merchants, whose commerce extends to most parts of the world, but especially to the West Indies, Martinico, St. Domingo, and Quebec, before the late war: from hence also was a very great part
of

Rochelle.

of the Newfoundland trade carried on, and likewise that of their Mississippi. The French East India company too made use of Rochelle as a port, though not always, for the return of their ships from India, and for disposing of their cargoes.

*Port
Lewis.*

Port Lewis is a harbour deserving our notice, and, if it had stood on the north part of France, in Normandy, or Picardy, would have been worth a kingdom itself; but as it stands on the coast of Brittany, to the south of cape Ushant, where France has many good harbours and safe roads for shipping, as well for war as commerce, such as the harbours of Brest, Rochelle, Nantes, Bourdeaux, &c. and the roads of Conquet, Belleisle, St. Martin, and others, this makes Port Lewis the less regarded. It is, however, populous and rich, and has many wealthy merchants, especially such who trade pretty largely to the West Indies; and being a good harbour, is likewise a station for part of the royal navy, and for the ships of the French East India company.

Nantes.

Nantes stands thirty miles within the land, upon the north bank of the Loire, which is here a very spacious and noble river, has a deep and safe channel, and makes a fine harbour. It has a flourishing trade, both domestic and foreign, few towns in France outdoing it. The great exportation of wines and brandies from hence are the capital constant articles upon which Nantes chiefly depends. It is scarce credible to conceive how considerable the trade is, both of brandies and wines together; insomuch that it is an usual thing to see two or three hundred sail of ships in the Loire at a time, taking in wines and brandies.

There is no port of any consequence between Rochelle and the river Garonne, nor upon the Garonne, except

*Bour-
deaux.*

Bourdeaux, which is forty miles up that river. This is an exceeding large and populous city, and is so spread by vineyards, as to be accounted not less than twenty miles long. The tide flows quite up to the city of Bourdeaux, and brings ships of good burden to the very key. It stands on the south of the river Garonne. The trade here is chiefly for wine, and that in such prodigious quantities, that when our trade with France was open, it had been ordinary to see four or five hundred ships in the river at a time, loading wines for England only, and for other nations many more. Hence came the clarets and strong wines of France, as those of Pontac, Graves, Frontiniae, Caveac, &c. being the names of the vineyards, or of the towns where the vineyards are, the wines taking their names

names from the towns, or from the persons who own them. They have also a considerable traffic here to the West Indies, as particularly to the French sugar-colonies in America, and they have many sugar-bakers, which have brought them a great trade for refined sugars, both at home and abroad.

Bayonne is the last considerable town in the French dominions. It is an ancient, spacious, opulent, and populous city, has a great trade both in France and with Spain, and with many other parts in Europe. Its fine harbour in the mouth of the river Adour reaches into the very heart of the city, and is so deep and safe, that the largest ships come up to the very merchants doors; and the entrance into it is secured by a strong castle, regularly fortified, Bayonne being a frontier both by land and sea, for it is within fifteen miles of the frontiers of Spain.

Bayonne.

Thus we have seen how France, by its situation, has the advantage for commerce of all the nations on this side the globe, Britain excepted. To the prodigious number of their people must be joined the temper and genius of the nation: they are vigorous, active, industrious, and even in trade, as well as war, an enterprising people. So greatly have they increased their trade since the treaty of Utrecht, that they now carry their wines and brandies into the Baltic, where formerly the Dutch sent them in Holland bottoms; and the French bring their naval stores from Livonia, Prussia, and Petersburg, in French ships; where, before that treaty, no French ships had scarce ever been seen. The Hanse Towns now have little or no share in furnishing France with iron and copper, with timber, pitch, or tar. The French also now trade with Sweden, as other nations do, and to Dantzic, and have greatly increased their commerce in Russia as well as their neighbours. With all these advantages of situation, extent of land, and numbers of people, France has laboured, from the beginning of its commerce, under two difficulties, which rendered it next to impossible to produce any considerable staple manufactures, unless these difficulties could be effectually surmounted. These were the want of a competency of wool, and of silk, the two fundamental articles in the general manufactures of Europe, and such too, which the French, from the activity and industry of their people, were well disposed to fall into; but wanting these fundamental natural productions in ample quantities, suffered the discouragement many years, with no little affliction; for they fell into the silk manu-

Rise and progress of the trade of France, and to what owing.

facture to a very great degree, encouraged by the Italians, when the French were masters of the Milanese, in the reign of Francis I. and though they bought their silk in Italy and Turkey, as they still do in some quantities; yet all the southern parts of France, especially the Upper Languedoc, the Lyonnois, and part of Dauphiné, were employed in the manufacture of silk, and greatly improved in it, spreading it into Champaigne, and even to Paris itself. This was from about the year 1520. But at length, the French conquered this difficulty. By the means of some Piedmontese, who became subjects to France after the seizure of Pignerol, in the reign of Lewis XIII. they first began to plant the white mulberries in Languedoc, and part of Provence; and, nourishing the silk-worms with unspeakable industry, and being greatly encouraged by the court in the reign of Lewis XIV. they, after many years spent in the first experiments, at length brought the same to perfection, and produced the silk itself in good quantities, which is now become a natural produce of France, as it was before of Piedmont, and other parts of Italy, who originally borrowed it from the Asiatics of Armenia and Georgia, as the French did from them, and as the English most certainly might from them both, and effectually establish the same in the colonies on the continent of America. But it has not proved the same in France with regard to the produce of wool, which, as to quantity and quality, is far from being equal to that of England and Ireland in general. The French, a vigilant and improving people, being sensible how deficient they were in the article of wool, obtained sheep from England and Ireland, as they had wool, in order to try the possibility of raising wool, by the means of our sheep, as good in quality, and as large in quantity, in general, as our wool is; but hitherto they have been disappointed, though, it is said, there is at present in Normandy another grand attempt on foot to accomplish this design. We are apt to flatter ourselves with the impossibility hereof, yet we may one day find ourselves mistaken. The examples brought from our bull-dogs, hounds, and mastiffs, all which are said to alter their nature upon change of climate, supposing these things to be matter of fact, do not, perhaps, afford any thing conclusive with respect to the article of sheep. We shall not, however, enter into the philosophy of this matter; nor would it become Britons to be instrumental to let such rivals into a secret of that kind, was it in their power. Certain it is, that France still labours under

under the want of this essential production, to the degree that we have it. They have wool, indeed, of their own growth, in great quantities, since the success of their woollen manufactories; and in some places, as with us, it is better than in others, as in the Upper Languedoc, Poitou, Guienne, and those provinces lying towards Burgundy; but the best has been said not to be qualified for near so estimable a manufacture as ours is in general, neither will it mix or work with the foreign wools so well, the staple being too short, and the wool itself weak, and not sufficiently strong to bear the several needful operations of combing, carding, spinning, and weaving, to that perfection which ours does; so that the manufactures, when made of the best of it, are thin, slight, and not of that substance, duration, and beauty, as those made of the English and Irish wool. Yet this disadvantage by nature has not discouraged this nation from attempting the woollen manufacture in every branch; for, since they have not wool so good, in general, as ours, they have been long determined to have our English and Irish wool, which being properly mixed with their own, or properly worked by itself, they have had art enough to impose their woollen manufactures upon several other parts of Europe, even for English fabrication. This supplying France with English and Irish wool was first brought about by the indefatigable endeavours and profound policy of their great minister Colbert, to whom we owe that pernicious trade of owling, as it is called, or the running of wool from this kingdom into France. He first set the poor to work all over France, in combing, spinning, weaving, and dying of wool and woollen goods. And what was soon the consequence of this? the French king saw all his subjects clothed, however indifferently, with the manufactures of their own country, who, but a few years before, bought their cloaths from England, or, which was worse, at second hand from Flanders and the Dutch. This commercial minister also decoyed, by rewards and encouragements, English artists into every part of France, where it was found most proper to establish these manufactures; and there they taught the people so well all the several parts of the manufacture, and the French were so apt to learn, and so dextrous and chearful in teaching each other, that, in a few years, they could do without English instructors. Being thus able to furnish their own people, to clothe the nobility and gentry, nay, even the king himself, for he would wear nothing that was not the manufacture of his

own subjects, they not only, in a few years, excluded the English woollen manufactures from their country by a law, but began to turn their eyes abroad, and prepare to rival the English in all the foreign markets of Europe, as in Spain, Portugal, and Italy, as also in Asia and Africa, but especially in Turkey and Barbary. To effect this, the great Colbert took these measures: he first informed himself of the several sorts of the British manufactures sold in every foreign market, of which he had pieces and patterns brought him; and he erected particular works for making these very goods; and, what was another master-stroke of politics, he wisely encouraged the merchants to export them, by causing credit to be given them out of the public stock, that is, by the king, even till the return for these goods came home. This was particularly done with the Turkey merchants at Marseilles, who had credit out of the royal treasury till the return of their ships from Smyrna and Scanderoon; by which politic encouragement the Marseillians first supplanted the English in the Levant trade, wherein we are too sensible they have surprisngly increased ever since.

Having thus far given a pretty ample account of the French commercial concerns, we shall now consider the inhabitants as to their history, and some other interesting particulars.

*Origin of
the French.*

The want of literature, in the earlier ages of the world, has made it extremely difficult to discover the origin of nations. The best that can be learnt of that of France is that it was peopled after the flood by the posterity of Gomer, the eldest son of Japhet. These, growing numerous, composed many nations, to whom the Greeks and Romans gave the general name of Galli or Celtæ. Under that name they were known in the time of Tarquinius Priscus, the fifth king of Rome, and possessed a country of very large extent, comprehending not only all present France, but part of Italy also, as far as the river Rubicon, which falls into the Adriatic sea between Ravenna and Rimini, and all that part of Germany and Belgium, that lies within the river Rhine. The Gauls remained subject to the Roman empire from the time of Julius Cæsar till the Franks or French entered it. These were a warlike people of Germany, who possessed all the country that lies between the Rhine and the Weser, and from the German ocean in the north, to the river Maine in the south. They consisted of the nations of the Sicambri, Bructeri, Sali, and Cherusci, who conquered the country

country beyond the Maine, and making the banks of the river their chief seat, gave the name of Franconia to the country now called so. The first notice of them in history under the denomination of Franks, is in the reigns of Valerian and Galienus, about the year of Christ 260; after which they are frequently mentioned on account of their plunders and pillage in Gaul. Constantine the Great, took their kings Afcatic and Ragaise prisoners, and exposed them to wild beasts, for having violated their faith in making war against the Romans.

About the year 412, the Armorici, who inhabited the maritime provinces of Gaul, as Flanders, Picardy, Normandy, and Brittany, revolted from the Romans; they were joined by the Franks, who by that means possessed themselves of the German and Belgic provinces of Gaul, which the Romans were forced to grant them. Soon after this they chose Pharamond for their king. He reigned ten years, and had his seat in Gaul; but about the time of his death, the Romans beat the Franks out of Gaul again, and took from them the lands they had given them; which Clodion the son and successor of Pharamond endeavoured to regain; but he was beaten back by Aetius the Roman general. Clodion was some years without undertaking any thing, having chosen for the place of his residence the castle of Disperg on the other side of the Rhine; but hearing by his spies, that there were no garisons in the towns of the Belgica Secunda, now the territory of Rheims, he set out immediately with his army, and keeping his march secret, made himself master of Bay, Cambray, and some other neighbouring places.

Merovee succeeded Clodion. In his time Attila king of the Huns invaded Gaul with a numerous army; for the relief of which Merovee joined his forces with those of Aetius the Roman general, and of Theodoric king of the Visigoths, who altogether fell upon Attila, and in battle killed two hundred thousand of his men, as historians report, and drove him out of Gaul. Aetius, who was the great support of the Roman power in Gaul, was soon after massacred by Valentinian, who himself was killed by Maximus. This put the Roman affairs into such disorder, that Merovee had time to extend his conquests, which he did over all Picardy, Normandy, and part of the Isle of France. His son Childeric took Paris, Orleans, and several other cities, and established the French monarchy. Clovis his successor freed the French wholly from the Roman power, and gave the name of France

to all the country that reaches from the Rhine to the Loire.

After the death of Clovis the dominion of the Franks was divided into two parts, viz. Osterick, or the Eastern kingdom, called by corruption Austria and Austrasia; and Westerick, or the western part or kingdom, called Neustria. The former contained all Old France, and the country beyond the Maine, which they had conquered, together with Rheims, Chalons, Chambray, and Laon, which was from that time a separate kingdom, the seat of which was Metz in Lorrain. Aquitaine was not comprized under the name of France, nor Burgundy, even after it had been conquered, nor Britannia Armorica, at least the lower, as being an independent state. Neustria contained all the country that lies between the Meuse and the Loire, which was again divided into three kingdoms; 1. Of France, the capital of which was Paris; 2. Of Orleans; and 3. Of Soissons. When the French had afterwards subdued the Visigoths and Burgundians, the kingdoms of Aquitaine and Burgundy were erected. All these kingdoms were several times united and divided, as the royal family happened to be more or less numerous. But the title of kings of France, historians have give to those only who ruled at Paris.

There are reckoned three races of these monarchs. The first is called the Merovingian from Merovee, who, putting aside the children of Clodion, caused himself to be chosen king, and fixed his regal seat in Gaul. This race continued during the reigns of nineteen kings, and ended in Childeric III. who being a very weak man, was degraded by the assembly of the states, and Pepin, the son of Charles Martel, maire of the palace, was elected in his stead. With him begins the second race, called the Carlian, or Carlovingian.

The maire of the palace was an officer of great dignity and power. He was at first chosen by the nobility, and confirmed by the king, and was intrusted with the management of all affairs of state. The power of the maires became in time almost absolute; for, by reason of the weakness and supineness of the kings, they increased it as they pleased, so that at last it became hereditary. Pepin and his son Charles, surnamed Martel, both successively maires of the palace, were in a manner kings themselves, during the reigns of Dagobert II. Chilperic, Clotaire, and Thierry; and after the death of Thierry, Charles made himself chief governor, with the title of maire and duke of the French; in which posts he was succeeded by his sons

sons Carloman and Pepin, during an inter-regnum of six or seven years; and after the deprivation of Childeric, Pepin obtained the royal dignity.

Pepin was succeeded by his son Charlemagne, or Charles the Great, an epithet the noble actions he performed very justly deserved; for it was he that conquered the barbarous inhabitants of the most northern parts of Germany, and established Christianity and civil government among them, after he had overcome Wittikind, the last king of the Saxons. He also conquered the Boii, or Bavarians, became king of Germany, and in the pope's quarrel carried his arms into Italy against Desiderius king of Lombardy, who attempted to diminish the papal power, and make himself king of Italy. Charles defeated him, seized his kingdom, and was crowned king of Lombardy. He also conquered the Saracens in Spain, and the Huns, Danes, and Normans, who infested his own countries, and was finally chosen emperor by the Romans, being crowned as such on Christmas-day, in the year 800. Thus he erected a new western empire, and made himself the greatest prince in the world. But this mighty monarchy was in a little time reduced to his former limits; for his son Lewis the Debonnair, or Meek, divided the kingdom of France among his three sons, the kingdom of Italy having been given during the life of Charles the Great, to Barnard the natural son of Pepin, one of that emperor's children, but who died before him. After the death of Bernard, Lewis the Debonnair, having taken his son Lotharius into partnership of the empire, gave him also the kingdom of Italy; his son Pepin he made king of Aquitaine, Lewis king of Bavaria, and Charles king of Rhætia. Though some of Charles the Great's posterity succeeded in the empire, yet his family degenerating, they not only lost that title, but Charles, surnamed the Simple, the great-grandson of Lewis the Debonnair, was for some time kept out of the throne of France also, by Lewis and Carloman, his bastard brothers; and after them by the emperor Charles the Fat, and by Eudes earl of Anjou; and though he obtained it at last, he could not enjoy it quietly, being forced to resign it to Rodolph of Burgundy, who kept it two years, and after his death the son of Charles the Simple was restored. But his son and grandson were disturbed by Hugh Capet, earl of Paris and Anjou, and maire of the palace, descended from Eudes above mentioned, who, after the death of Lewis the Faineant, or Lazy, was chosen king by the assembly of the states held at Noyon

in the month of May, 988, and began the third, or Capetian race of the kings of France, which is still upon the throne.

Lewis IX. a direct descendant from Hugh Capet, and who, on account of his various expeditions against the Infidels, obtained the surname of St. Lewis, died in 1270, and left two sons, Philip and Robert. The latter espoused Agnes, daughter of John III. son to Hugh duke of Burgundy, by the heiress of Archambault, seigneur de Bourbon. This lordship coming thus to Robert count de Clermont, son to St. Lewis, in right of his wife's mother, he thereupon assumed the name of Bourbon. His family succeeded to the crown about three hundred years afterwards, on the murder of Henry III. the last monarch of the house of Valois, by James Clement, a Dominican friar, in the person of Henry king of Navarre, who was the ninth in descent from Robert count of Clermont, and whose claim to the crown was clear, as next heir male, all the other branches from the other stock being extinct, and none remaining but women, or princes descended from the women, who by the Salic law cannot inherit the crown. This prince, by the style of Henry IV. and the Great, annexed to the crown of France, Bearne, Bigorre, and the counties of Foix and Bresse, which were his private patrimony. Being assassinated by Raivillac, on the 24th of May, 1610, he was succeeded by his eldest son Lewis XIII. whose son Lewis XIV. born September 5, 1638, succeeded him in the throne May 14, 1643, and was crowned at Rheims, June 7, 1655. He died September 1, 1715, and was succeeded by Lewis XV, his great-grandson, born February 15, 1710; for the dauphin, son to Lewis XIV. died of the small-pox, April 14, 1711, and the duke of Burgundy, son to the dauphin, died February 18, 1712, six days after his ducheys. They left two sons, the eldest of whom died the 8th of March following; so that when the late king of France was born, there were three heads between him and the crown, who all died within less than a year.

*Character
and go-
vernment
of the
princes of
the house of
Bourbon.*

The French history, since the accession of the house of Bourbon, which contains but four reigns, may be said to include almost all that need be known of the general history of Europe. Henry IV. in respect to public affairs, was a great and good prince; he loved his subjects as his children, promoted trade, and maintained justice throughout his territories. He was not inclined to disturb or in-
jure

jure his neighbours ; but, rather contented with his own dominions, he was so far persuaded, that a steady and unalterable balance of power was for the common benefit of Christendom, that in the latter end of his reign and life, he formed a design to establish it, and to cut of pretences for wars in succeeding times, by means of a perpetual congress. In order to this, he thought it requisite to lessen the power of the house of Austria, by depriving it of those dominions acquired without any just title in Italy, which he proposed to have erected into separate principalities, as most conducive to a general peace, and the common benefit of the inhabitants. But while he meditated these great and glorious projects for the good of mankind, and had assembled in Champaigne a numerous army, which was on the very point of marching to put them in execution, a period was put to his days and schemes by an infamous assassin, in the fifty-seventh year of his age, and twenty-second of his reign.

Lewis XIII. his son, enlarged the royal authority far beyond its ancient and legal bounds. This was the great, the distinguished character of his reign. Before his time, the nobility were potent, and even the meanest of the people were in some measure free ; but at his decease the royal authority had almost swallowed up all ; and men's safeties and fortunes, as well as power and preferment, depended on the will of the king and his ministers. Yet such was the abject flattery, or rather ridiculous folly of those times, that his subjects bestowed on him the surname of Just ; as if he had been more careful in observing the laws, and maintaining the ancient and legal constitution of France, than any of his predecessors ; whereas in fact, he did more towards destroying it than all the kings that had reigned before him. It is true, this did not proceed so much from himself as from his minister, cardinal Richelieu ; but that minister could have done nothing without the assistance of his authority ; and if he had preferred the welfare of his subjects to the possession of boundless power, he would never have given into his schemes. Cardinal Mazarin, the creature and disciple of Richelieu, pursued his master's instructions, if not with equal genius, yet with much greater cunning ; so that in the space of thirty-seven years, for so long the ministry of these two cardinals lasted, the design of rendering the government of France, which in former times resembled the other governments of Europe, an absolute monarchy, was brought to bear, not more to the oppression and misfortune of those

those, who from being subjects only, were made slaves thereby, than to the terror and confusion of all Christendom ever since. It may hence appear, that the personal characters of princes are not of any great consequence in altering of governments. Lewis XIII. was, in parts, very far inferior to Henry the Great, and yet he acquired much more power by listening to the suggestions of a minister, who governed him, whereas his father governed his ministers as well as his subjects. There are very great qualities requisite in a prince who aims himself at overturning a constitution; but passive obstinacy is a quality not hard to be met with, and this conducted by a designing minister will do the work full as well.

The cares of his successor, Lewis XIV. after the conclusion of peace of Utrecht, were such as ought to have been the cares of his whole life; they were bent to secure the succession of the royal family, and to restore the trade and welfare of his subjects, to both which he appeared now very solicitous; nor did he make any scruple of confessing, that experience had convinced him of the error of his former conduct, and the follies of which he had been guilty, in preferring his own grandeur to the good of his people, and the lustre of his reign to the safety of the state. Before this period, as a king, he was ambitious with respect to his neighbours, arbitrary towards his subjects, and boundless in both. With regard to the former, he had no tie but interest; and the latter, no law but his will. He entirely subverted the constitution of his country. He left the princes of his blood without power, and his parliaments without authority. The force of his kingdom he reduced to a standing army; the property of his subjects he rendered precarious, and every rank of them entirely dependent upon the will of his successor, under whom the same maxims were invariably pursued, though with the shew of greater lenity and moderation, that prince being naturally good, but weak.

*Ancient
constitution
of France.*

The greatest lawyers, and best historians of France agree, that the power of their kings was anciently restrained, not only within narrower bounds than at present, but, in reality, they were as much limited as any monarchs could be. That in all governments, supreme and absolute power is, and must be lodged somewhere, we find generally agreed; that, according to the old constitution in France, this did not reside in their princes, but in the general assembly of the states of the kingdom, as in all other Gothic constitutions, is certain. But, as it

was

was found inconvenient to hold these general assemblies very frequently, so, to hinder the encroachments of their kings while they were not sitting, part of their powers were transferred to certain committees, which gave rise to the parliaments of France, and particularly to that of Paris, which was at first ambulatory, that is, attended the person of the king; but, in process of time, was fixed to that city, for the convenience both of prince and people. The ancient prerogatives of this assembly plainly prove, that as representatives of the states, the sovereignty was really in them, for amongst others they had these three; first, they judged the peers and great men of the kingdom, over whom the king in this respect had no power; for in case they were suspected of failing in their duty to the constitution, they were to be tried by their equals, according to the known law of the kingdom; secondly, all the great officers of state took their oaths in parliament; from which it is manifest, that they were bound not to the person of the king, but swore to him in his political capacity, and for the general benefit of the state; thirdly, they had the right of registering, approving, and promulgating the king's edicts, without which they had not the sanction or force of laws. These instances unquestionably demonstrate, that, according to the Gallic constitution, their kings were not absolute; but all these checks are now taken away. The assembly of the states is a thing no longer heard of; and as for parliaments, they are but shadows of what they were, or rather, are now become the instruments of that power they were instituted to restrain.

*Rise of the
Parliaments
of France.*

The liberty of the subject is entirely at the mercy of the king; he imprisons whom he pleases, without giving any account; and, whenever he finds it requisite, appoints such judges for the trial of offenders as he thinks fit. The great officers of state take their oaths to and from him; so that they now belong entirely to the king, who appoints, removes, extends, or retrenches their authority as he pleases. The registering of edicts is become a mere matter of form; the parliaments do, indeed, sometimes remonstrate, but in the end the king's will and pleasure always prevail. Thus it is, that the whole government of this great nation has been, by the arts of cardinal Richelieu, drawn entirely into the hands of the crown and its ministers, the utmost pains having been since taken to reduce it into such a system, that this power might influence the

*Absolute
power of
the king.*

the whole, and keep every branch thereof in a strict and constant dependence.

*State of
the Gallican
church.*

We have heard much of the Gallican church, and of its freedom; but from the time of cardinal Richelieu, this freedom is become a mere engine of state, by the help of which the king has sometimes made use of the power of the clergy, and at other times of that of the pope, to extend his own. It was with a view to this, that the Protestants of France were in general expelled, by revoking the edict of Nantz. Lewis XIV. was resolved to make himself supreme in church as well as state, the true reason why he would admit of no dissenters; and he and his successor have carried this into execution, notwithstanding the nominal authority of the pope, which was often made use of by them, and cannot now be turned against the king. The clergy of France, are, however, a very great and considerable body. They consist at present of eighteen archbishops, and one hundred and thirteen bishops, all named and appointed by the king; who has likewise the nomination of seven hundred and seventy abbeys, and of the superiors of three hundred and seventeen convents of nuns. This must give the crown great influence over that part of its subjects, which were formerly the least attached to it. The ordinary revenue arising from the tenths of the clergy, amounts to one million two hundred thousand livres per annum; besides which, in the general assemblies of the clergy, free gifts are so constantly expected, even in the times of peace, that this additional revenue is computed annually at two millions; but in the time of war the extraordinary free gifts render it much more.

*Civil and
political go-
vernments.*

As to the civil government, the king has a great council of state, and twelve parliaments, besides other courts, such as generalities and Intendancies, for the management of the revenue; of the former there are twenty-six, and of the latter more. As for the political government, it is managed by several great councils, or rather committees of council, of which there are at present four, which are styled the council of state, the council of dispatches, the royal council of finances, and the royal council of commerce. The first civil officer in France is the chancellor, and the only officer that is not removeable at the king's pleasure; that is, he cannot be removed without being brought to a trial; but the king may, and frequently does, take the seals from him, and put them into the hands of another,

another, with the title of keeper and power of chancellor. There is generally a person at the head of the ministry, either with or without the title of prime-minister, and with more or less authority, as the king pleases. For the management of public affairs, there are four principal secretaries of state, for the separate departments of foreign affairs, domestic concerns, war, and the marine. The principal officer of the revenue is the comptroller-general of the finances, who has under him a multitude of intendants and other officers, subject to the direction of the council of finances. The ordinary revenue of the crown is generally computed at six millions sterling; but in time of war a much larger sum is levied.

As the ecclesiastical and civil government was moulded in the compass of two reigns, into such a form as made the French wholly subservient to the purposes of the crown; so the military establishment, as it now stands, was entirely the work of Lewis XIV. for, before his time, a few companies of the guards, and four old corps, as they are still called, were all the standing troops of France. It was by the help of his standing army, that he gained so many and great advantages over his neighbours, and annexed several conquered provinces to his dominions; which, at the same time, afforded him an opportunity of increasing the number of these regular troops, and of covering his frontiers on every side with abundance of strong fortresses.

The grandeur of the crown, which with some impropriety is in that country styled the glory of France, appears to be the ultimate aim of the French ministers; not but by the wise regulations that have been made since the accession of the house of Bourbon, France may vie with, and even surpass in the perfection of its police, all the other states of Europe; but to speak impartially, it is, indeed, on keeping up this spirit, that the peace and safety of the government, as it is now administered, depends; and it is impossible for the French court to drop her influence abroad, without manifestly hazarding her quite at home; so that to expect a French monarch should adhere strictly to treaties, and relinquish all views upon his neighbours, is to expect a golden age; a thing that may be wished even by the wise, but which fools themselves can never hope to see. The French power was at its greatest height at the time Lewis XIV. made the peace of Nimeguen, or a very little after. All the succeeding wars exhausted that nation prodigiously, though its views, in some measure,

*Military
establishment.*

*Reflections
on the pre-
mises.*

might

might have been served by them; and if we consider the distresses of France before the definitive treaty of peace, 1763, we cannot help saying, that her glory or grandeur, which occupies so much her cares and attention, was scarce ever eclipsed to the degree it had been in that war: her armies were beaten in every quarter of the globe; her fleets sunk, shattered, and made captive, and her public credit was almost expiring; so that whatever her resources may still be, it is certain, the advantages she enjoyed before that war will hardly be recovered in a course of years.

S E C T. V.

Of Italy.

*Boundaries
and extent
of Italy.*

ITALY is bounded on the west by the Alps, which separate it from the adjacent provinces of France; on the north it is likewise bounded by the Alps, and on the east by the dominions of the house of Austria; on the one side it is washed by the Mediterranean, from the country of Nice to the coasts of the kingdom of Naples; and, on the other, by the Adriatic and the gulf of Venice; a narrow streight divides it from the fruitful island of Sicily, which, however, has been in all times, reckoned a part of it. From the frontiers of Switzerland to the extremity of the kingdom of Naples, it is about seven hundred and fifty miles in length; and from the frontiers of the duchy of Savoy, to those of the dominions of the state of Venice, which is its greatest breadth, about four hundred, though in some parts it is scarce a fourth part so broad.

*Soil, climate, arts,
commerce,
&c.*

The soil and climate, in different parts, are as opposite as can well be imagined. In Switzerland, and the county of the Grisons, the mountains are as high as in any part of Europe; the earth barren, and the air bleak and sharp; the plains of Lombardy again are justly styled the garden of Europe, as well on account of their fertility, as the serenity and pleasantness of the climate; in the dominions of the church, and in the kingdom of Naples, the heat in summer is excessive, to which, however, they are indebted for the richest fruits, and the most odoriferous flowers, as well as oil, wine, silk, and other valuable commodities. There are few countries in the world better watered than this, in respect to springs, rivulets, small and

and great lakes, as well as large rivers. Thus bountifully dealt with by nature, it has also, from the ingenuity and application of its inhabitants, been esteemed the mother of arts and commerce, in respect to the rest of Europe; its reputation is still so high with regard to the first, that the tour of Italy is considered as the necessary conclusion of a polite education; and, in reference to the latter, though the trade of Italy is now nothing to what it was, yet the ports of Genoa, Leghorn, Naples, and Venice, to say nothing of those in Sicily, make still a very great figure; and derive great advantages to the sovereigns in whose dominions they are situated. Besides all this, the several countries of Italy have such funds of natural riches, and the people are so happy at improving, as well as inventing manufactures, that they stand in need only of some favourable juncture to revive their ancient spirit, and to make as great a figure as their ancestors did in comparison with other nations.

This great and fruitful country of Italy has been, as high as history records, either the seat of empire, or the theatre of war. It was then in the same situation that it now is, cantoned out into various little states and republics, all living in distrust, at least, if not in war with each other. The Roman commonwealth changed the face of things by swallowing up all, and making herself the head and mistress of Italy. The division of her empire proved the ruin of it, and the provinces adjacent to Italy being lost, the barbarous nations that conquered them very soon became masters even of the imperial city of Rome, and divided Italy once more into separate principalities, all of which have been extremely subject to revolutions, sometimes from the superior power of foreign invaders, and as often from the effects of intestine commotions; so that no history is fuller of events, and consequently more capable of gratifying curiosity, and fixing attention, than that of this country.

General History.

There is no kind of government subsisting in any part of Europe, of which something of the like kind is not to be found in Italy. As to the sovereignty of the pope, it is peculiar to this country, being vested in a spiritual person, and yet altogether a temporal power, exercised as absolutely, and, as is generally supposed, with more policy, than in any other monarchy. The dominions of those two crowned heads (for as yet there are no more) that lie within its limits, are those of his Sardinian majesty at one end, and of the king of the Two Sicilies at the

Government.

the other. The duchy of Milan, once the largest and richest in this part of the world, together with the duchy of Mantua, and its dependencies, belong to the house of Austria. His imperial majesty is considered as one of the Italian powers, not only in that capacity by which he claims a title, paramount to the greatest part, if not the whole, but particularly also as grand-duke of Tuscany. The infant duke of Parma is in possession of a settlement, composed not only of that duchy and of Placentia, which was the patrimony of his ancestors by the mother's side, but likewise of Guastalla. His serene highness the duke of Modena holds that duchy and Reggio, together with the duchy of Mirandola; and besides these, there are some other lesser princes who would take it ill if they were not styled sovereigns. The republic of Venice is an unmixed aristocracy, still venerable for the wisdom of its government, as heretofore formidable by the extent of its dominions, as well as a great naval force. The republic of Genoa is an aristocracy also, but not quite so pure as that of Venice. The Swiss cantons, the Grisons their allies, and the city of Geneva, are so many different republics, each having its particular form of government, but owing their strength to their confederacy, which renders them truly great and formidable. There are, besides these two free states, the dominions of which are surrounded by those of sovereign princes, to whom notwithstanding they owe no obedience, or even homage; the first of which is the commonwealth of Lucca, in the neighbourhood of Tuscany, and the latter the republic of St. Marino, in the midst of the pope's territories. Such is the distribution of power in Italy, and, in supporting this distribution, and maintaining each of these princes and states in their respective rights, so as to prevent their encroaching upon each other, or being overborne by a foreign force, consists the preservation of the balance in Italy. We shall now consider all these states separately, according to their distinct governments, beginning first with the

Dominions of the King of Sardinia.

THE dominions of his Sardinian majesty, considered as duke of Savoy, and prince of Piedmont, have been always regarded as the key of Italy on the side of France; and in latter times this prince has been justly looked upon as the natural master of the balance in Italy.

Not that his dominions even now, when by various acquisitions they are become much superior to what they were under any of his ancestors, qualify him to give law to his neighbours, or even to secure himself from the bad effects of a general alliance against him; but upon the score of its being his interest to affect peace rather than war; and because while he remains firm to his own interest, reason and experience shew, that he will never want allies willing to give him all the assistance he needs for the preservation of his own territories, and maintaining that system upon which their security and his own grandeur must always depend. His dominions in Italy, and contiguous to it, consist principally of Piedmont; some districts acquired by conquest or treaty; Savoy, and the island of Sardinia; of the last we shall speak in our account of the European islands.

Piedmont is bounded on the east by the duchies of Milan and Montferrat; by the territories of Genoa, and the country of Nice, on the south; by High Dauphiné, and part of Savoy, on the west; and by the duchy of Aoste, and part of the Milanese, on the north. The river Po divides it into two parts. Its length, from north to south, is about a hundred and thirty miles, and breadth, from east to west, where broadest, about ninety-four. It reaches from 43 deg. 25 min. to 45 deg. 50 min. of latitude and from 7 deg. to 8 deg. 30 min. of east longitude. It is a very rich and fertile country, and one of the most pleasant and plentiful in all Italy. It produces great abundance of corn of all sorts, wines, and fruits in great variety; also hemp, flax, saffron, mulberries, to feed great quantities of silk-worms, silk here being a great manufacture; and affords, besides good store of cattle, some metals, and, in a word, plenty of every thing fit for man's use and delight; and it is so well peopled, that the Italians are wont to say, that the duke of Savoy has but one city in Italy, three hundred miles in compass.

The duchy of Savoy is situated between France and Italy, on the west side of the Alps, bounded by the lake and territories of Geneva on the north; by Switzerland and Piedmont on the east; by another part of Piedmont and Dauphiné on the south; and by Franche Compté and Dauphiné on the west. It is a barren country, being, for the most part, encumbered with the high cold mountains of the Alps; however, there are some pleasant fruitful vallies, producing corn, wine, and fruit; and they have large herds of cattle, and abundance of game, venison,

and wild fowl, in their mountains, and plenty of fish in their lakes and rivers. Their greatest misfortune is, that they lie open to the incursions of the French; and whenever their prince is at war with that kingdom, Savoy is first made sensible of the ravages of the French troops, and used as a conquered country, though, upon every treaty of peace, it has hitherto been restored.

*Commercial
concerns.*

The commerce of the dominions of his Sardinian majesty was heretofore so very inconsiderable, as to be scarce worthy of notice; but, by degrees, and under the two last reigns more especially, things have been much changed. The staple commodity of Piedmont is a kind of silk indispensably necessary in many manufactures, and his Sardinian majesty has put this under such regulations as to make it rise to the highest amount possible. The English alone have taken off the value of two hundred thousand pounds of their raw silk annually, for several years; but their crops of silk-worms are sometimes destroyed by storms of hail, called the plague of Piedmont. The navigation of the Po enables the inhabitants of Turin, and the adjacent country, to carry on a considerable trade to Venice. There is a little, and but a little traffic stirring at Alexandria and Villafranca. Besides all these, his Sardinian majesty has gradually and silently possessed himself of all the passages by which the inland trade is carried on between France and Italy, and having it by this means in his power to lay what duties he thinks proper, derives from thence an additional revenue; which is not only of great consequence in itself, but the more so by keeping the neighbouring states in a kind of dependence, through fear of the injuries he might otherwise do the commerce of their subjects. Nothing can be of greater importance to the trade of the British nation than preserving the balance in Italy: which, if lost, must necessarily throw all that valuable branch of commerce, in which we have at present so large a share, and from which we derive annually a considerable profit, into other hands, and, which is worst of all, into the hands of the French; a thing against which we have as much reason to guard as a trading nation, as the king of Sardinia himself has cause to oppose, as far as possible, the growth of the French, out of regard to his own safety. This sufficiently shews, that our interests are really mutual, and that there is nothing of political art in the expediency of supporting this monarch against all his enemies, though at a large expence to ourselves.

Theo-

Theodoric, king of the Goths, gave the country of Piedmont to the Heruli, after he had conquered the famous Odoacer, and stripped him of his dominions in Italy. The Heruli being afterwards subdued by the Lombards, Aripert, their seventeenth king, made a present of it to the see of Rome; but as it lay too far from that metropolis, and the grant was not confirmed by any of that monarch's successors, it fell into the hands of the kings of Italy, of the house of Charles the Great. Thomas, the son of Humbert III. and after him Peter, surnamed Little Charlemagne, the former the seventh, and the latter the tenth earl of Savoy, made themselves masters of the greatest part of this country by force of arms; the one in the year 1210, and the other in 1259; since which time the eldest son of the house of Savoy is styled prince of Piedmont. The marquissate of Saluzzo was afterwards annexed to it by the marriage of a daughter of that family with Charles I. duke of Savoy, in the year 1481.

*History of
the dukes
of Savoy,
now kings
of Sardinia.*

This family is, according to the generality of genealogists, descended from the famed Figuardo, king of Saxony, in the year 636; which, if true, it must have preserved itself ever since, that is, upwards of eleven hundred years, in a continued series of heroic princes, without ever vitiating or interrupting their pedigree. They are accordingly ranked among the greatest princes of Italy, and their family has given birth to no less than five emperors and four kings. But we need not, for our purpose, ascend any higher than Victor Amadeus II. the father of the late king of Sardinia, and who, in his lifetime, was esteemed one of the greatest captains, as well as one of the ablest politicians in Europe. His whole study was the balance of Italy, which he perfectly understood, and steadily pursued. His situation made this requisite, his penetration brought this very early to his notice, and having once conceived its importance, it became his rule of action to his life's end. He succeeded his father duke Charles Emanuel, in the year 1675, and that by a very surprising accident. He was then a boy, and had just began his exercises; his father who had a true foresight of his great qualities, was extremely fond of him, and coming one day to see him ride, the young prince had the misfortune to be thrown from his horse with such violence, that those about him cried out he was killed, which affected duke Charles Emanuel to such a degree, that he fainted upon the spot, and died in a few

days of the fright. His mother, the duchess-dowager of Savoy, governed his dominions during the minority of Victor Amadeus; and when he had attained to an age fit for marriage, she negotiated a match for him with the infant, who was then esteemed heiress of the kingdom of Portugal, which was carried so far, that the duke de Cadaval came with a Portuguese squadron to Nice, in order to have carried his highness to Lisbon. But the young prince suspecting he might lose his hereditary countries, and possibly miss of the foreign crown he was seeking, changed his mind suddenly, and broke off the marriage. Some time after he espoused Anna Maria of Orleans, the eldest daughter of Philip of Orleans, only brother to the Lewis XIV. by Henrietta Maria, daughter of our king Charles I. so that he became nearly allied to our royal family; and his son, the present king of Sardinia, is the first prince of the Roman catholic line after the heirs male of the house of Stuart, but excluded from this succession by the Act of Settlement.

It was in virtue of this marriage, that, in the beginning of his reign, the duke of Savoy went into the measures of France, and, at the instigation of Lewis XIV. began a violent persecution against his Protestant subjects in the Vallies, about the year 1685, which threw his whole country into blood and confusion. But it was not long before he perceived his error, and that nothing could be so fatal to a prince as depriving himself of a great part of his subjects. He was also convinced that the French monarch meant him no better than the rest of his neighbours; and therefore, when the first grand alliance was formed at the Hague, in 1690, he took care to be included in it, and ventured so far as to stake his dominions to preserve his independency.

His dominions suffered greatly in the course of the war, but at length he happily extricated himself from all the difficulties he had laboured under. In 1706, assisted by the allies under prince Eugene, he attacked the French in their lines before Turin, beat them, and, by a single victory, recovered Piedmont and saved Italy. The very next year he invaded France in his turn, forced the passage of the Var, marched directly through Provence, and formed the siege of Toulon, which, though it miscarried, he continued the war with his own forces, and obliged the French to keep an army on that side constantly, to prevent his irruptions, which weakened their forces elsewhere, and convinced them he was no contemptible enemy.

At

At the conclusion of the treaty of Utrecht, the late queen Anne insisted upon the cession to him of the kingdom of Sicily, and took care that the crown of Spain, the heirs of Philip V. failing, should be entailed upon this prince. France restored to him the duchy of Savoy, and the county of Nice, and yielded to him likewise in perpetuity, the valley of Pragelas, with the forts of Exilles and Fenestrelles, the vallies of Oux, Bardonnache, and Chateau Dauphiné; but, on the other hand, he yielded the valley of Barcelonetta to the crown of France. His most Christian majesty likewise confirmed the cessions that were made by the emperor, of a part of Montserrat, the provinces of Alexandria and Valentia, the countries between the Po and the Tenaro, the Lomelin, the valley of Sessia, and the equivalent that was to be given for Vigevanasco.

All this contributed to make the king of Sicily, as he was now styled, a very considerable prince; and he would have soon become much more considerable, if he had remained longer in possession of Sicily, where he began to make himself very agreeable to the people. But the Spaniards, on the one hand, could not endure that he should keep that island, and the late emperor, Charles VI. on the other, kept up his claim to it, and resolved to take the first opportunity that should offer of re-uniting it to his kingdom of Naples. In this dilemma, his best measure, he judged, was striking in with his old allies, who, about this time, concluded the quadruple alliance. All he could obtain was the exchange of Sicily for Sardinia, which though a very great loss, was better than nothing; but in a little time it seemed very doubtful, whether he would be able to obtain even this, the Spaniards making themselves entirely masters of that island, at the same time that they attacked and conquered a great part of Sicily. These events passed in the year 1718, when the affairs of this monarch wore but an indifferent aspect, till sir George Byng, having entirely destroyed the Spanish fleet, put it in the power of the imperialists to make themselves masters of Sicily, and so far checked the ambition, and humbled the power of the catholic king, that he was once more content to abandon Sardinia, which, in consequence of the alliance before mentioned, was delivered up to Victor Amadeus, who bore ever after the title of his Sardinian majesty, and continued also in possession of that island, situated very near his own dominions. It was very far from being an inconsiderable acquisition, though certainly

tainly much inferior to the noble kingdom of Sicily, which, for the present, fell under the dominion of the emperor Charles VI. and continued so, many years after, till it was once again recovered by the Bourbon family, and is like to remain in their possession.

As soon as the king found himself in some measure extricated from those troubles and disputes with which his reign had hitherto been embarrassed, he set about the execution of a project he had long before conceived, in causing to be compiled, under his direction, a complete code, or body of laws, for the use of his subjects, which he ordered to be published in 1723, and by which, in a great measure, he freed his people from trivial and vexatious suits, and from running into a tedious length of such as were more necessary. He had also projected other regulations, and seemed wholly bent upon such measures as might tend to the improvement of his country, and to better the condition of his people, when he found himself under a necessity of taking a very extraordinary step, which was the resignation of his crown in favour of his son the prince of Piedmont. He was moved thereto from various considerations, but chiefly from finding himself so extraordinarily pressed by the emperor on one side, and by France and her allies on the other, that he could scarce determine with himself what side to take, and therefore inclined to make a chasm in the government, rather than take either, in hopes of gaining time for his successor. Add to this, that being much worn with the continual fatigues of a long and active reign, he was desirous of passing a few years in repose with the countess St. Sebastian, whom he married when a private man, and retired with her to Chamberry in Savoy.

This resignation took place with great solemnity in September, 1730, in presence not only of the great ministers of his court, but also of almost all the nobility and persons of distinction in his dominions. Charles Emanuel II. his son and successor, mounted the throne in the thirtieth year of his age; but it was not long before the old king, at the instigation of the lady he had made his wife, but not his queen, grew dissatisfied with his private condition, and began to form designs of resuming his dignity. The young king acted a very wise and discreet part; for there is nothing more certain, than that it was with the utmost reluctance and concern he took, by the advice of the great officers of state and the nobility, the only measure that was left for him to take, that of confining the old

old king to his palace at Montcalier, where he remained to the day of his death, which was the last day of October, 1732, in the sixty-seventh year of his age. Charles Emanuel fulfilled afterwards the great hopes he had given from his most tender years of making a mild and gracious, as well as gallant and wise prince. At his entrance into the government he met with many and unexpected crosses, but he happily extricated himself from them without blemish to his character, and without prejudice to his administration. In 1733, the death of Augustus, king of Poland, occasioning a rupture between the houses of Austria and Bourbon, he entered into an offensive and defensive alliance with France, to which Spain afterwards acceded, for restoring the balance of power in Italy, where he thought the house of Austria had acquired too great an ascendant. During the course of this war he shewed a reach of politics much superior to his age; but his behaviour in the battle of Guastalla obscured all that he had hitherto performed; and the splendor of that victory, which was entirely owing to his personal courage and conduct, threw all his former great actions into shade, since all Europe rung now with his praises as a hero. However, while this war was drawing to an end, he had a convincing proof of the bad faith and sinister intentions of the court of France to him; for the British ministry having concerted with the court of Vienna a plan of peace, by which Tortona and the Tortonese, Novara and the Novarese, together with the Vigevanasco, were to be detached from the duchy of Milan, and annexed for ever to Piedmont; the French court, by a clandestine negotiation, deprived him absolutely of one of those districts, and only left him his choice of the other two, in which situation he preferred the former. These preliminaries were signed October 3, 1735, and were in every respect favourable to France, injurious to her allies, fatal to the house of Austria, and destructive of the balance of Europe.

From this time forth his Sardinian majesty pursued with the greatest steadiness his proper and original system, of restoring and preserving to the utmost of his power the balance of Italy, by preventing the encroachments of either of the two great families, whose quarrels had so long disturbed the peace of that country, and, indeed, of all Europe. After the death of the late emperor, Charles VI. when Spain was determined to push her pretensions in Italy by force, and had also secured the assistance of

France for that purpose, both threats and promises, with all the address of the ablest ministers, were employed to bring his Sardinian majesty into their measures. But though his affairs at that time were in a very embarrassed situation, the queen of Hungary being pushed to the utmost in Germany, and her forces weak in Italy, he resolved to act in her favour. He defended the duchy of Milan against a Spanish invasion, reduced Modena and Mirandola by force, obliged the Spanish army, under the duke de Montemar, to retire towards the frontiers of Naples, and defeated all the attempts of the French and Spaniards to penetrate into Piedmont. These exploits were performed in 1742 and 1743, though, towards the close of the former year, his enemies, by the dint of superior force, made themselves masters of his duchy of Savoy, out of which he had driven them some time before.

In October, 1743, as the strongest proof of his constant and unalterable resolution to support the common cause, and preserve the Austrian dominions in Italy, he concluded with the queen of Hungary and his Britannic majesty, the famous treaty of Worms, the only clear and explicit alliance entered into during the war; by the eighth article of which he obtained certain concessions in return for what he had already done, and in consideration of what, by that treaty, he undertook to do, and which he afterwards most punctually and faithfully performed.

In the campaigns of 1744 and 1745, he afforded new proofs of his abilities, and of the significance of his friendship; and when the circumstances of the queen of Hungary allowed her to reinforce her armies in Italy in the spring of the year 1746, his majesty very early exerted himself, and, by a most surprising stroke of military courage and conduct, drove the French out of most of the places they had taken in his territories, and afterwards joining the Austrian army, shut them up in the city of Placentia. This brought on the famous battle of Rottofreddo, in which they opened a passage for a flight out of Italy, abandoning Genoa to the resentment of her enemies, and retiring with precipitation into France, whither they were soon after followed by the allies. His Sardinian majesty took this opportunity, and, availing himself of his good fortune, reduced Savona and Final, which remained in his possession to the end of the war. These glorious and
incon-

incontestible proofs of his wisdom, valour, and probity, received the next year a noble addition by the almost incredible victory gained at Exilles, by which the best laid plan the French and Spanish generals ever formed was entirely disconcerted, and the flames of war hindered from spreading again into the heart of Italy.

By the sixth article of the treaty concluded at Aix la Chapelle, he was obliged to restore to the republic of Genoa, and to the duke of Modena, whatever had been taken from them; so that by this means he lost both Savona and Final, and consequently, all that had been stipulated in his favour by the treaty of Worms, as to the last mentioned place; but, by the same article, the duchy of Savoy, and the county of Nice, were restored to him by the house of Bourbon. By the seventh article he made a solemn resignation of that part of the duchy of Placentia which had been yielded to him by the empress-queen by the treaty before mentioned. But, by the twelfth article, the possession of all his former acquisitions, as well as those that were left to him in consequence of the treaty of Worms, were recognized and secured, and he likewise obtained the general guarantee established by that treaty for those provinces, as well as for all the rest of his dominions, wherever situated, or in what manner soever acquired.

The territories of the king of Sardinia are now the same as they stood at the conclusion of the peace of Aix la Chapelle, for he bore no part in the late war; yet, by the peace, he obtained a confirmation and guarantee of that part of the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, which establishes his reversionary title to Placentia, on failure of the male line of the infant Don Philip; or in case that prince or his issue should succeed to the crowns of his family. In the mean time the king of France engaged to pay him an annuity equivalent to the revenues of the territory in question, and stipulated to remit immediately the capital sum of those revenues, on condition of repayment whenever the king of Sardinia enters into possession of them. In this manner a subject of dispute, which might otherwise embroil Italy, was happily settled. His father, as we have seen, was obliged to accept the island of Sardinia instead of Sicily: the duchy of Savoy, principality of Piedmont and county of Nice, are the ancient patrimony of the family; the duchy of Montferrat was formerly annexed to that of Mantua, but the house of Savoy

voy had an old claim to it, which was revived when the last duke of Mantua was put under the ban of the empire in 1708, when the late king of Sardinia's father obtained the investiture of it from the emperor, which was confirmed to him by the peace of Utrecht. Besides these, the districts which from time to time have been acquired at the expence of the duchy of Milan have augmented very considerably both the power and revenue of his Sardinian majesty, and have also extended his influence in such a manner as to make his friendship very essential to the safety of his neighbours; so that he is justly esteemed one of the most considerable potentates in Italy, exclusive of his expectancies, which, if any of his family should come to enjoy, would render them one of the most considerable powers in Europe.

*Govern-
ment.*

The king of Sardinia is an absolute prince, and the crown hereditary; but the administration of the government, in the several territories he possesses, is committed to as many councils, and they are governed by their respective laws where the king does not interpose.

Turin.

Turin, situate on the rivers Po and Doria, is the capital of his dominions. It is of a square form, three miles round, and admired for its spacious squares, piazzas, and streets, and particularly the king's palace, which, for the beauty of the apartments, the richness of the furniture, the elegant paintings, cabinets of curiosities, and library, is scarce to be paralleled. The chapel of the Holy Handkerchief, built of black marble, is much admired; this handkerchief tradition says, was presented to our Saviour by a compassionate virgin, as he was going to his crucifixion, and, our Saviour having wiped his face with it, returned it, with his portrait impressed on the handkerchief in the most lively colours. We thought it necessary to be thus far explicit in regard to the dominions of his Sardinian majesty, because we consider him in the light of our faithful ally, and as a prince of the greatest consequence in Italy. We shall now take a view of the Austrian dominions in this country.

Dominions of the House of Austria, in Italy.

The dominions of the house of Austria in Italy are now confined to the duchies of Milan and Mantua. The former is one of the most fertile provinces in Italy: it is bounded on the west by Piedmont, Savoy, and Montferrat;

ferrat; on the south by the Appennine Mountains, and the territory of Genoa; on the east by the states of Venice, Parma, and Mantua; and on the north by the territory of Valais, the Grisons, and Switzerland. It is above two hundred and forty miles in length, and eighty miles in breadth; and is generally divided, together with the countries annexed to it, into thirteen districts, viz. the Milanese Proper, the Pavese, the Lodesan, the Cremonese, the Comasco, the county of Anghiera, the vallies of Sessia, the Novarese, the Vigevanois, the Lomeline, the Alexandrin, the Tortonese, and the territory of Bobbio: but of these several have been ceded to the king of Sardinia, some by the emperor Charles VII. and others by the late empress-queen; yet what remains to the house of Austria, may be still considered as one of the fairest and finest countries in her possession. It lies in a most excellent climate, and is blessed with as fruitful a soil as any in Europe, watered by the noble rivers Po, Tessin, Adda, and Sessia, besides the famous lakes of Maggiore, Lucano, and Como. But to come to the most material point, the revenues that are drawn from it amount to at least three hundred thousand pounds sterling a year, besides its furnishing subsistence for thirty thousand men, and enabling the court of Vienna to provide with governments and preferments, ecclesiastical, military, and civil, numbers of her dependents, and that too, which is no very easy matter, even to the extent of their hopes and wishes. Milan, the capital, is not well peopled, but is one of the most trading cities in Italy. Its principal manufactures are those of the silken and woollen, steel and iron work, prodigiously neat, especially sword-hilts, snuff and tobacco-boxes, buckles, and the like. They likewise work very neat on a sort of rock-crystal, which is brought hither from the Alps, some pieces of which are large enough to be worked into fine looking-glasses of about twelve inches by thirteen; but this work is very difficult. The citizens here are very rich, and gentry numerous. New Lodi, in the Lodesan, is a rich and populous town on the river Adda. They breed a vast quantity of cattle in the territory about it, and it is famed for making excellent cheeses, and of a monstrous bigness, some of which weigh above five hundred pounds, and far exceed the Parmesan in taste; as also for dried neats tongues, and a fine sort of earthen-ware, not inferior to the Dutch delft.

The

The duchy of Milan formerly constituted the north part of the ancient Liguria, and was inhabited by the Insubres when the Romans reduced it under their dominion. The Goths made a conquest of it in the fifth century, and were dispossessed by the Lombards in 572. Milan then composing the best part of the kingdom of Lombardy, was subdued by Charlemagne the emperor, about the year 800; but in the wars between the emperors and the pope, Milan withdrew her allegiance, and assumed an independency, sometimes in the form of a republic, and sometimes governed by dukes. It was long contended for between the emperor and the French, till Charles V. expelled the French about the year 1525, and gave it with Spain to his son Philip II. to which crown it remained subject till the death of Charles II. the last heir male of the eldest branch of the house of Austria. In the war occasioned by the contending powers for his succession, the Imperialists, with the assistance of their allies, drove the French out of Italy in 1706. The Spaniards and French recovered it from the Imperialists in 1734; but by a subsequent peace it was restored to the emperor, on his ceding Naples and Sicily to don Carlos, the king of Spain's son; and the Austrians remain possessed of the duchy of Milan to this day, the empress queen governing it by her viceroy or vicar.

The duchy of Mantua is about fifty miles in length, but so unequal in breadth, that there is no saying any thing of it with certainty. The capital is very large, and one of the best fortresses in Italy, both by art and nature. The country, which is very fine, abounds in corn, fruit, flax, silk, and cattle, and the revenue is usually computed at about a fourth part of that of Milan. This duchy was also part of the kingdom of Lombardy, and was conquered by Charlemagne in the year 800. In the wars between the pope and the emperor, it assumed an independency, sometimes as a republic, and sometimes governed by dukes. These dukes were of the family of Gonzaga, who held it till the year 1703, when Ferdinand Charles, the last duke, adhering to the French against the house of Austria, the emperor seized on this duchy as a fee of the empire; and the duke dying without issue in 1708, the Austrians still keep possession of the whole except Guastalla, a part of it, which by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, concluded in 1748, was allotted to don Philip of Spain, together with the duchy of Parma.

Dominions

Dominions of the Infant Duke of Parma.

The duchies of Parma and Placentia form together a very considerable sovereignty; in length, from west to east, they are about sixty English miles, and their breadth from south to north is about forty. On the west they are bounded by the dominions of the empress-queen and the king of Sardinia; on the south, by the territories of the republic of Genoa; on the east by the duchies of Modena and Reggio; and on the north they are divided by the river Po from the duchies of Mantua and Milan. The climate is equally healthy and pleasant, and the soil wonderfully fruitful; the vallies abound with all kinds of fruit, with rich pastures and excellent vineyards; and in the mountains are both copper and silver mines. The inhabitants have prodigious herds of horned cattle, and numerous flocks of sheep; the first enable them to make the best cheese in Italy, and, in the opinion of many, in Europe; and the latter furnish them with vast quantities of very fine wool. The cities of Parma and Placentia are the only places of any consequence in the royal infant's dominions: the former is an old irregular place and not very large, meanly fortified, but commanded by a castle of some strength; the latter is larger, better situated, more beautiful, and more populous, within a very small distance of the Po, which is a great convenience.

Parma underwent the fate of the rest of Italy, till it became subject to the German emperors; it afterwards became subject to the pope, the Venetians, the Milanese, and the French successively. Pope Julius II. in 1545, reduced it under the obedience of the see of Rome; and pope Paul III. created his natural son, Peter Lewis Farnese, duke of Parma; but the male line failing, the late emperor Charles VI. granted it as a fee of the empire to don Carlos, son of the queen of Spain, and heir of the house of Parma, against which the pope protested, esteeming it a fee of the holy see. Parma was afterwards relinquished by don Carlos, on his being advanced to the throne of Sicily; but by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, Parma was allotted to the infant don Philip, his brother, together with the duchy of Guastalla in Mantua, which, indeed, is nothing more than a district of the duchy of Mantua, having been given as a provision for a younger branch of the ducal house of Gonzaga. It is separated from the rest of the royal infant's dominions
by

by a part of the duke of Modena's country, but the communication by the Po is, notwithstanding, always open. Guastalla is a very neat and flourishing place, and the country about it both fruitful and pleasant. Its revenue is computed at fifty or sixty thousand crowns; and that of Parma and Placentia formerly at six hundred thousand crowns, but it may be doubted, whether the people can raise above two thirds of that sum. It is, however, supposed that these duchies may maintain a regular force of about six thousand men, without any great detriment to either prince or people. These are all the territories that the royal infant possesses in Italy; and though in themselves they may be justly reckoned very considerable, yet when we reflect on the royal birth, the high pretensions, and illustrious marriage of his royal highness with the daughter of France, we cannot help being astonished at the strange profusion of men and money with which this inconsiderable settlement was purchased. The daughter of France, Louisa Elizabeth, with whom he was married, died December 4, 1759, and her daughter by him, married to Joseph of Austria, king of the Romans, and now emperor of Germany, died the 27th of November, 1763. Don Philip had by his late duchess, a son, by name Ferdinand, born the 20th of January, 1750.

Dominions of the Duke of Modena.

THE estates of the duke of Modena have the duchies of Mantua and Guastalla on the north; the grand duchy of Tuscany on the south, with the territories of the republic of Lucca; the Bolognese, and the duchy of Ferrara on the east; and the duchy of Parma on the west. The extent of them from south to north, is about fifty-six English miles, and they are about fifty miles in breadth from west to east. The duchy of Modena, properly so called, comprehends one of the fairest and most fruitful countries in Italy, abounding with corn, wine, oil, and fruits, very populous, and inhabited by an ingenious and industrious people. The small country of Frignano bordering on the Bolognese, is annexed to it on one side, and part of the country of Carfagnano on the other, the rest belonging to the republic of Lucca. It is very mountainous, but far from being despicable on that account, as in these mountains there are mines of great value, and the inhabitants are a race of people as robust, hardy, and brave, as any in Italy. The duchy of Reggio
lies

lies west from that of Modena, and is by some accounted the more considerable duchy of the two; and indeed so it is, if we consider its dependencies, such as the principalities of Correggio and Carpi, the former heretofore possessed by the princes of the same name, and the latter belonging to the family of Pio. In the north-west corner of this duchy stands Bercello upon the Po, formerly a place of great strength, yielded by the duke of Modena in 1701 to the imperialists, to facilitate the military operations in Italy, and for that reason, besieged, taken, and entirely demolished by the French in 1705.

The duchy of Mirandola, including that of Concordia, is about twenty miles in length, and five in breadth. It is a very beautiful and a very plentiful territory, full of villages, and the country round about them thoroughly cultivated. Mirandola is strong by situation, and has been formerly well fortified. The city of Concordia stands on the Secchia, at the distance of six miles from Mirandola, between which cities there is a fine canal called the Navilio, which facilitates the commerce of both. These duchies were very great acquisitions to the family of Este, their revenues at a moderate computation amounting to one hundred thousand crowns a year; and in the whole, the duke of Modena, in time of peace, may be supposed to enjoy a revenue of about one hundred thousand pounds a year at least, with which he maintains a very splendid court, and when his circumstances render it requisite, can keep up a body of eight thousand regular troops. The greatest inconveniency in the situation of his country is, that it has no communication with the sea, which might easily be removed, if he could recover either by treaty or force the duchy of Ferrara, which lies upon the gulf of Venice. It is to be observed also, that the western part of the duchy of Reggio intervenes entirely between the duchy of Parma and that of Guastalla, so that they can have no communication but by the river Po. As this is very inconvenient for the infant duke, it has been surmized that he would restore to the empress-queen a part of the duchy of Guastalla, in order to engage her to grant the duke of Modena an equivalent for this part of his country; and if this negociation is ever brought to bear, that equivalent will be easily found, since the country of Novellara, which is likewise a part of the Mantuan, lies in the midst of the estates of the duke of Modena, and would be very convenient for him. On the other hand, it has not been long since rumoured as
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if his serene highness was desirous of exchanging for it the countries that he holds in Hungary, which to him, no doubt, would be very acceptable, but will hardly appear in the same light to the house of Austria.

The duchy of Modena underwent the same revolutions with the adjacent countries, till it was annexed to the marquisate of Ferrara. It was possessed alternately by the pope and the family of Este till the year 1597, when the pope and the duke agreed to divide the country between them. The pope accepted of Ferrara, and the family of Este, the duchies of Modena, Reggio, and Mirandola. This family is not only allowed by the best historians to be without controversy one of the most ancient and illustrious in Italy, but also in Europe. It derives its descent from Azon, lord of Este, which is a small but pleasant town in Lombardy, not far from Padua, who flourished in the tenth century. His descendants became very considerable princes, and so continued down to Alphonso I. who was duke of Ferrara, Modena, and Reggio. Mary Beatrix Eleanor, daughter of Alphonso IV. married James, duke of York, afterwards king of Great Britain, in 1673, by whom she had issue James Francis Edward, born the 10th of June 1688, and Louisa Maria Theresa, born the 18th of June, 1692, who died the 18th of April, 1712, and several other children that died in their infancy. Francis Maria d'Este, the present duke of Modena, was married June 21, 1720, to Charlotte Aglae, daughter of Philip II. duke of Orleans. By adhering to the French and Spaniards against the Austrians, in the war that preceded the last, he was expelled his dominions, but restored by the treaty of Aix la Chapelle. He has been since appointed administrator for the government of the Milanese, during the minority of the archduke Peter Leopold, governor-general thereof. The prospect with respect to this ducal house is much altered by the death of the cadet prince of Este. The hereditary prince, Hercules Renault d'Este, born the 22d of November, 1727, is the person upon whom the continuance of this illustrious family depends. So that considering the nature of fiefs in Italy, the fate of so considerable a succession may excite much political confusion.

Republic of Genoa.

THE territories of the republic of Genoa, lie in the crescent, on the Mediterranean sea, for one hundred and fifty

fifty miles from the town of Ventimiglia on the west, almost to the territory of the republic of Lucca on the east, and are called the *Rivieras* of Genoa, an Italian word, signifying a *strand*; and, indeed, the country is little better, no where extending twenty miles from the sea, and in some parts not ten. The Appennine mountains in a manner cover it on the land side, and separate it from the countries of Milan, Piedmont, the Montferrat, the Milanese, and Parmesan. The tops of these mountains are perfectly bare, having neither trees nor herbage upon them; but towards the bottom, they are well planted with vines, olives, and other fruit; but the soil yields scarce any corn, and the sea not many fish. The capital of this republic, of the same name, is situate in 9 degrees 30 minutes east longitude, and in 44 degrees 30 minutes north latitude, part of it on a level strand near the sea, but rises gradually to the top of the hill. The harbour is large and deep, but exposed to the south-west wind, only there is a mole for the security of their galleys and small vessels, and the city lies pretty much exposed to a bombardment; as they experienced in 1684, when Lewis XIV. ordered the town to be beat about their ears. There are here large quantities of silk manufactured, also velvets, tabbies, sattins, silver and gold brocades, fine point, gloves, and sweetmeats, which are in great request, as well as their soap.

The trade in wrought silks which was carried on at Genoa, when all the silks made in the Milanese and Mantuan were formerly bought up here by commission from England and Holland, is at present extremely decayed, both those countries being grown wise enough to employ their own people in the silk manufacture. But there is another trade carried on here, in which the Genoese have so great a share, and have managed so well, that it is thought they have gained more by it than they did by all the commerce of the Milanese: this is, their making most of the silks, which they bought before, in their own little dominion, and employing their own subjects; and as the trade they carry on in these goods to Lisbon and Cadiz is prodigiously increased, it is said they flourish more in these branches of it, than they did before with all the rest, not forgetting that they have still a considerable commerce with Holland, and some with England. They have likewise a very considerable traffic in paper, large quantities of which are brought to England, besides what they send to Portugal and Spain, as well for

their trade to America respectively, as for their own consumption.

This republic for near three centuries, rivalled Venice in the dominion of the Mediterranean, and the commerce to the Levant; but, after the memorable victory of Chi-ozza, the Venetians bore away the maritime empire; yet Genoa still maintains no inconsiderable share in the commerce of the Levant, and by its medium foreigners carry on the trade of Lombardy. What figure the Genoese fleets have formerly made, by means of their commerce, may be easily conceived, by the many victories they gained over the Saracens, Pisans, Venetians, Turks, and Spaniards; as well as from their many large conquests; such as those of the islands of Crete, Sardinia, Majorca, Minorca, Negropont, Lesbos, Malta, and their settlements in Scio, Smyrna, Achaia, Theodosia, and other towns on the eastern confines of Europe; but, at present, their whole navy is reduced to a small number of gallies, which serve only to fetch them some corn, wine, and other provisions; insomuch that when, in the late queen Anne's war, they had but six of these gallies in all, and had resolved to build more, the French king sent expressly to forbid it, telling them, that he knew better than they how many they had occasion for.

The great inducement to the traffic of Genoa is a kind of free, as well as a fine port; for, on the arrival of foreign ships, the merchandizes are deposited in a grand free warehouse, no duties of import or export being paid, except in proportion to the sales that are made; and what remains unfold is re-imbarked without duty. The Genoese, Venetians, and Florentines, are said to have been the first trading countries who fell into the way of negotiating money by bills of exchange, and first discovered the profits and advantages to be occasionally made thereby. It was they also that discovered the admirable art of accountantship by charge and discharge, according to the method of double entry.

Genoa, as part of the ancient Liguria, continued under the dominion of the Romans, till the ruin of that empire by the Goths, and other northern people; after which it made a part of the kingdom of Lombardy, and then of the German empire, and at length set up for a sovereign state. It was afterwards successively subject to the archbishop of Milan, to the French, to the marquis of Montferrat, and the duke of Milan. Its present form of government it owes entirely to the virtue of Andrew Doria,
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who, in 1527, rescued it out of the hands of the French, and refusing the sovereignty offered him, fixed its condition as a free state. Its constitution is of a mixed nature, but seems from experience to be but ill contrived, as having so much of an aristocracy as to make the people uneasy, and yet so much of a democracy as to keep up a continual ferment. The doge, or duke, is elected every two years, during which time he resides in the palace, is maintained at the public expence, has guards and other insignia of princely dignity, and twelve counsellors continually about him, styled the seignory, in whom the majesty of the republic resides; but the legislative power is vested in the great council, which consists of four hundred. However, the most considerable body in power in the republic, is that which is called St. George's Bank, constituted of such branches of the public revenue as have been set apart by the government for the payment of such sums as are borrowed during the exigencies of the commonwealth, and which have never been violated under the greatest troubles and perplexities of the state. The administration of this bank being for life, and partly in the hands of the citizens, gives this body a great authority in the state, and a powerful influence over the people. This bank is generally thought a great load to the state, and as a kind of inferior senate, which breaks the uniformity of their aristocratic government. The people, however, receive no small benefit from it, both as it is a check to their aristocracy, and distributes the power among more private members of the republic; and while the republic kept out of the broils of Europe, the bank maintained a circulation for the support of the public credit and their commerce. But this state having unhappily taken part in the war that broke out in 1744, they exhausted their public treasure, on which foundation the bank was constituted, and its credit received so violent a shock, as not easily to admit of a flourishing revival.

The revenues of the republic are very far from being considerable, nor is its trade near so great as it was; both, however, are still capable of being recovered. The private persons in the city of Genoa, of great families, are commonly rich, and have large estates, some in Naples and Sicily, others in Spain, and not a few in the Italian dominions belonging to the house of Austria; which is attended with great inconveniencies, as throwing them into interests inconsistent with, or directly opposite to those of their country. The island of Corsica, which belonged to

this republic, we shall consider in our account of the European islands.

Republic of Venice.

WE must cross over the countries we have described to come from Genoa to Venice. This ancient republic may be divided into three parts : the dominions in Italy, called Terra Firma ; those in Dalmatia, and those in the Ionian and Egean seas, called the Levant. The Terra Firma dominions are again subdivided into the following territories, viz. the Dagado of Venice, the Paduano, Vicentino, Veronese, Bresciano, Bergamasco, Friuli and Aquilgio, Istria, Cremasco, Polesin de Rovigo, Marcas Trevigiana. The coasts of Dalmatia contains the towns of Zara, Nona, Spalatro, Sebenico, Trau, Clissa, and Cattara ; and the isles of Charto, Otero, Vegtia or Vegia, Arbe, Pago, Isola, Longa, La Barga, Lessina, Curzola, and some few more of small note. In the Levant, the isles of Cephalonia, Corfu, Zant, La Praza, Millo, Cerigo, Tine, Kimolo or Argentaria, and the Morea.

The Venetians have little produce of the country, or manufacture of the people, except the silk, and the silken manufactures ; the former respects the land part, the latter the city, where many of the silk manufactures are made ; but yet the state is very opulent, as abounding with universal merchants ; and this is owing to an universal correspondence, by which, as the Dutch are to these northern parts, so are the Venetians to all the shores of the Adriatic Gulf, the isles of the Arches, and the sea-coasts of the Turkish dominions ; for to all these places they send their ships, freighted with the growth and manufactures of other countries, as of England, Holland, France, Spain, &c. in return for which they bring but few goods, except from Turkey, whence they import large quantities of silk, which they sell again, among their own manufacturers in the city, as also in their Terra Firma dominions, and likewise to the duchies of Milan and Mantua, and all the countries between the gulf and the river Danube, through all which the Venetians have a great and flourishing commerce, partly by the help of canals, and partly by small navigable rivers. The trade which may be called their own, and which is more considerable, is by the navigation of those great rivers the Po, the Adige, the Adde, the Mincio, and others

others, by which they carry all the heavy goods they import from foreign parts into the rich and populous provinces of Lombardy, and have a communication even with Turin. By these rivers also they have a correspondence with the country of Trent and Tirol, and even with Bavaria itself; and by the lower branches of the Po, and the canal of Ferrara, with all the southern provinces of the papal dominions, as Ferrara, Bologna, Urbino, and Parma, and as far into the country westward as Modena.

As they have the sole commerce of most of these countries, and in such a manner as not to be interrupted by any rival nations, it is not to be wondered that the Venetians have a very thriving and gainful trade, and that they can advantageously disperse the large importations they make from almost all parts of Europe, as from Spain, Portugal, England, and Holland. Nor do they bring any valuable returns back from the inland countries, for they have few productions in those provinces, except corn; neither have they metals or materials, iron excepted; nor wool, cotton, or hair, or any considerable manufacture for employing their people; so that the Venetians are said to drive the most ready money trade of any of the Mediterranean countries, because they export such great quantities of goods to countries which have no returns to make them but money. However, they receive large quantities of other merchandize from the Turkish dominions, and more perhaps than any one nation besides.

We must not forget that there is a trade almost peculiar to the Venetians, which consists in naval stores; for the provinces of the Vicentino, the Trevigiana, and part of Friuli, are full of firs, and those so well grown and large, that they cut masts there even for their biggest ships of war; they have likewise good oak for building. In consequence of their fir woods, they have pitch and tar; and the same countries produce great quantities of hemp and flax; so that they have deals, timber, masts, sails, hemp, flax, pitch, and tar, all of their own, which none of the princes or states in the Mediterranean can boast of in the same manner. Nor is this solely beneficial to them in regard to their own navy, and to fill their own magazines, but they furnish all those materials, in great quantities, to the other ports of Italy, as Genoa, Naples, Messina, and Palermo, or to any other places where they build ships especially those of force; and the knights of Malta fetch most of their naval stores from hence. Were

the countries this way furnished for trade, and with wealth sufficient to carry it on, they would send hither for ships, and Venice would be the arsenal of the Mediterranean, as Holland has been of other parts of Europe.

On the large coast of the other side of the Adriatic Gulph, called Dalmatia, they have some good ports, though no city of any considerable commerce; neither does the country produce any thing extraordinary for merchandize; it supplies the city of Venice with corn and mutton, in great quantities; and, in return, the Venetians supply the people with their foreign merchandize. Yet the Venetians want many things which their own territories cannot supply them with, and which, since the Turks have possessed themselves of so much of their dominions, they are obliged to purchase from them, and from the Greeks under the Turkish government; and these are as well necessaries as merchandize. They carry the Greeks proper manufactures, such as wrought silks, fine linen, bone-lace, and all sorts of haberdashery for the women, who love to go fine, especially in the isles. What they carry back in return is difficult to enquire, but is from all parts according to the production of the place, such as currants, raisins, figs, drugs, rice, corn, oil, wine, cotton, silk, &c. and this is the reason why Venice is the magazine for the scarcest drugs, and from whence they are sent over the whole Christian world. As for money, they take little in the islands, the balance in that respect being rather against them.

It may be observed here, that the cities of Venice and of Rome are, of all the cities of Europe, for their bigness, the most noted for pomp and shew; the confluence of strangers to both being scarce conceivable. At Venice, the diversions of the carnival, the magnificence of the buildings, among which are four hundred nobleman's palaces, with the splendid appearance of ladies richly attired, cause a prodigious trade in things otherwise of no great moment, as equipages, coaches, gondaloes, liveries, habits of ceremony, furniture, paintings, and other extraordinaries of that kind. Hence there are more taylors, upholsterers, gold and silver lace-makers, embroiderers, and, to sum up all, footmen and pages, with fidlers and strumpets, than in any other city in the world, Paris and London excepted. At Venice also the numerous throng of gentry, and persons of the first quality, to the carnival is such, that they frequently number twenty or thirty sovereign princes there at a time, besides others of lower rank,

rank; without number. Thus, nothing may be said to conduce more to the promoting of commerce than the gay and sumptuous dress of the people, especially where the humour once becomes national, as it is at Venice and Rome.

The islands on which the city of Venice stands, were formerly subject to Padua, when the Goths and other northern nations invaded Italy in the fifth century. The inhabitants of Padua, Aquileia, and other cities on the continent, fled to these islands for shelter, and formed a republic. They elected a duke, or doge, vesting him with absolute power; but within a few years the principal citizens abridged his power to that degree, that they left him only the name of sovereign, vesting the supreme authority in the principal families, and their male issue, who are now styled noble Venetians, and amount to about one thousand five hundred; but do not suffer the nobility in their territories on the continent to have any share in the government. The signiory consists of the duke and six other members, chosen by the grand council of the nobility, and of the three chief judges of the principal courts of judicature; these are called the council of ten, in whom the executive power seems to be lodged; and this council elect three of their own number every three months, who are a kind of state inquisitors, or secret committee, receiving all accusations and informations against persons suspected of conspiring against the government; and may imprison, and proceed capitally against them without calling them to make a defence, if they all agree; otherwise the matter is brought before the council of ten. They have boards or councils also for raising and collecting the public revenues, and every other branch of business.

The Venetians no sooner became powerful at sea, but they extended their conquests on every part of the Terra Firma in their neighbourhood, and afterwards to the most distant coasts and islands on the Mediterranean and Euxine seas. They reduced Dalmatia, and the islands on that coast, under their dominion about the year 978. They took from the eastern emperors the islands of Rhodes, Scio, Samos, Mytilene, and Andros, in the year 1117; and in confederacy with the French, they even took the city of Constantinople in 1194, and remained in possession of part of that empire for some time. They reduced Candia and the rest of the Ionian and Ægean seas, as well as the Morea, and the city of Gallipoli on the Hellespont; and at length made a conquest of their mother

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city of Padua, and many other great cities on that side, extending their dominions upwards of one hundred miles in the north of Italy. They disputed the dominion of Slavonia, Croatia, Morlachia, and Dalmatia; with the king of Hungary; and contended with the Geonese for the empire of the sea with various success; but the Turks breaking into Europe, took from them Theffalonica in 1453, and demolished the wall on the isthmus of Corinth, which defended the Morea. The pope, France, and Spain joining in a confederacy against the Venetians, took from them their dominions on the continent in 1509; but the pope and Spain changing hands, they again recovered their territories on the continent. Their greatest loss was that of the India trade, which was ruined by the Portuguese discovering a passage to India round the Cape of Good Hope. Before this discovery, the Venetians purchased the merchandize of the East at Alexandria and the ports of Turkey in the Levant, and dispersed them all over Europe. The Turks took Cyprus, Candia, and all the islands in the Archipelago from them; and at length they lost the Morea, in 1715. They are still, however, the greatest naval power in Italy, and have seldom less than twenty thousand men in their pay in the time of peace, most of them foreigners, both officers and soldiers. The entire revenue of the republic is computed at about eight millions of ducats, but the annual expence does not commonly extend to half that sum. Before the fatal war of Candia they had in their treasury fifty millions of ducats in ready money, exclusive of the famous gold chain, to which they annually added some links, which forty porters could hardly carry, and which on certain festivals was extended cross the square of St. Mark, for the entertainment of the people.

The doge annually, every Ascension-day, formally espouses the sea, or gulf of Venice, by throwing a ring into it; being attended by three or four hundred of the nobility in their galleys, with a great number of barges and gondaloes richly adorned.

It is highly to the honour of this state, that for upwards of twelve centuries she has preserved her freedom, and for a great part of that time has lived under the same government, without suffering any of those dreadful revolutions by which many of her powerful neighbours have been involved in blood and confusion. This has justly given a high reputation to the wisdom of her senators, who, by their great policy and wonderful secrecy, have been

been able, through so long a space of time, to guard with equal diligence and success against foreign confederacies, many of which they have defeated, when laid with the deepest cunning, and supported with no inconsiderable strength. Her very losses are so far from reflecting discredit on the republic, that on the contrary they do her the greatest honour in the sentiments of those who are capable of forming a right judgment of history, and know how to distinguish properly in respect to causes and events. The common opinion that she continues to decline, and that the very being of the republic is in danger from a slow consumption, has been perhaps taken up without a due attention, and for want of having just notions of the wise and solid maxims by which her government is conducted; for though it be true, that she is in no condition to maintain such a war as that of Candia, yet it is no less true, that as things are now circumstanced, she has very little reason to fear it, especially being now better secured against the Turks by her perpetual alliance with the house of Austria. Since the peace of Passarowitz, which was concluded on the 10th of July, 1718, the Venetians have remained very quiet, and have very wisely avoided taking any share in those disputes that have since perplexed Europe; being mindful of their great and favourite maxim, to manage the government with the utmost frugality, encourage trade as much as possible, and to preserve peace as long as they are able.

Grand Duchy of Tuscany.

The grand duchy of Tuscany is composed of the territories that formerly belonged to the three small but potent republics of Florence, Sienna, and Pisa. The bounds that are generally ascribed to it are the river Tiber, the Appennine mountains, and the river Magra. The whole extent of this country from south to north, is about one hundred and thirty miles, and about one hundred and twenty from east to west. It is washed on the south and on the west by the Mediterranean, and with respect to strength and convenience, has all the advantages from situation that can be wished. As to the soil of this country, it is in some parts mountainous, where there are mines of copper, iron, silver, and alum, and quarries of fine marble, alabaster, and porphyry. In other parts it abounds with pleasant hills, which are covered with vines, oranges, lemons, olives,

olives, and other fruits, and in some places there are valleys which produce abundance of corn and grass. It has many little rivers, but the chief of them is the Arno. The other commodities besides those already mentioned, are wool, flax, saffron, serges, woollen cloths, silks, tapestries, gilt leather, earthen ware, perfumes, &c. There is no country in the world where the people are, generally speaking, better adapted to mercantile affairs, or where they know better how to make this disposition of theirs turn to account. The country round about Florence is excellently cultivated, and the city itself, so rich and beautiful, that it is styled, at home and abroad, Florence the Fair, according to the Italian humour of bestowing epithets upon all their great cities. The other two parts of the grand duke's dominions, the Pisan and the Siennois, though the country is not inferior to the Florentine, are far from being so well peopled, and consequently from being so much improved. On the contrary, in some places they lie almost waste for want of inhabitants, which has been owing chiefly to the jealousy of their princes. As this humour is now pretty well worn out, there is good reason to hope that these countries may recover, at least, to a tolerable degree, though not to their ancient splendor in the times when Pisa and Sienna were republics, and either of them very capable of making head against Florence. This shews the different effects of government, and that places may derive from liberty almost as great blessings as from nature.

Tuscany, known anciently by the names of Umbria, Tyrrhenia, and Etruria, fell under the dominion of the Romans, about four hundred and fifty-five years before Christ. The Ostrogoths possessed it in the fifth century, and then the Lombards, who were expelled by Charlemagne, in the year 800; after which it became subject to the German emperors, who appointed the governor, till the pope encouraged these governors to render themselves independent, and accept of his protection against the emperor. There were two potent factions in Tuscany at this time, 1240, which divided the whole empire, and occasioned a very long civil war both in Italy and Germany; these factions went by the names of the Guelphs and Ghibellines; the first appearing in the interest of the pope, and the other in that of the emperor. During these contentions, the cities of Florence, Pisa, Sienna, and several others, withdrew themselves from the dominion of both, and erected such governments as they saw fit. It

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was about the middle of the fifteenth century that Cosmo de Medicis, who had the glorious surname of the Father of his Country, assumed the supreme power. Alexander de Medicis, his descendant, was made duke of Florence by the emperor Charles V. in 1531. He was succeeded by his cousin Cosmo, who had the title of grand-duke bestowed upon him by pope Pius V. in order to raise him to a rank superior to the princes of Italy, though he had the style only of serene highness, whereas that of royal highness was given to the duke of Savoy. About the beginning of the present century, the grand-duke Cosmo III. finding the title of royal highness given by the emperor Leopold to the duke of Lorraine, applied himself likewise to his imperial majesty in order to obtain the same favour, which was accordingly granted. This prince, after a long and happy reign, deceased October 31, 1723, and was succeeded in his dominions by his son John Gaston de Medicis, the last heir male of his family. The infant don Carlos, at present king of Spain, was declared his heir; and soon after his arrival in Italy assumed, with the consent of the grand duke, the title of hereditary grand-prince of Tuscany. But upon the conclusion of that war, by which he acquired the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, it was stipulated by the treaty of Vienna, that the grand-duchy of Tuscany should be given to Francis, duke of Lorraine, in exchange for that duchy, which was to be yielded to his most Christian majesty after the demise of king Stanislaus of Poland, who was to be possessed of it during his life.

All the princes of the house of Medicis were merchants, and by their example commerce was always thought in Tuscany what it ought to be thought elsewhere, a thing not at all incompatible with the nobility. They were always remarkable for their prudent œconomy, which rendered them without comparison the richest princes in Italy; they were great patrons of industry and arts, very attentive to what might promote the welfare of their subjects, and omitted nothing that might engage strangers of merit to settle amongst them.

But the great glory of Tuscany, and the true source of her power and wealth, at least in modern times, has been her famous port of Leghorn, or, as the Italians call it, Livorno, obtained in exchange for Sarzana from the Genoese. The country about it was formerly a vile morass, or rather quagmire; the noxious steams of which rendered the air unwholesome; but by the skill and pains of an Englishman

Englishman, sir Robert Dudley, son to queen Elizabeth's potent favourite, the earl of Leicester, and himself created duke of Northumberland, the soil was rendered habitable, the air much less unwholsome, and the port improved so, as to become the best in Italy. By his advice also it was made a free port, that is, the duties inward are very easy, and there are none upon exportation. This has rendered it for about a century past the great magazine of the Levant trade, and drawn thither merchants from all parts, more especially Jews and Armenians, of whom many reside there, and have great privileges allowed them. But after all, the greatest part of the commerce was and is carried on by the subjects of the maritime powers, who for that reason have their consuls resident there, and interest themselves upon all occasions in its favour. On this account care has been taken to stipulate in all the treaties since the quadruple alliance, that the port of Leghorn should remain in its present situation, in whose hands soever it was left; which, however, to some may appear almost a needless precaution, since it is of such very high importance to the sovereign of Tuscany that it should so remain. It is, in truth, the great wheel which gives motion to the trade of that country, and attracts thither the richest commodities and the most valuable manufactures of Italy, from whence great advantages arise, not only to the subjects of the grand-duke, but also to the prince himself; whence one would be tempted to suppose, that respect to his own interests might supersede the necessity of any such interposition; besides, the friendship of the maritime powers is a thing of so great consequence to whatever prince is in possession of Tuscany, that the bare consideration of that seems to be a motive more than sufficient to secure all the immunities granted to the port of Leghorn from the smallest violation. However in matters of so tender a nature nothing ought to be neglected; and therefore we have the greater reason to persuade ourselves, that a thing so perfectly agreeable to the interests of all parties will never become the subject of any kind of dispute.

It was never thought an extravagant computation, when the revenues of this grand-duchy were estimated at between three and four millions of crowns yearly; one half of which, at least in times of peace, remained safe in the coffers of the grand-duke; or if it found its way out, was employed in trade, or lent to his subjects at a good interest. Whether the savings are altogether as great now as in former

mer times, may possibly admit of some doubt; but there is none with regard to the income, which is as great as ever. The grand-duke had also commonly thirty thousand men in pay, or rather inrolled; but as they are seldom called out to service, some have suspected, that instead of costing him any thing, his troops might probably contribute to the increase of his revenue. In the situation that things are now, there is a small regular force maintained by the grand-duke; and for the sea service, against the insults of the Barbary corsairs, four men of war, which have been not long since built by him, and kept stationed on the coast of Tuscany.

Republic of Lucca.

THE republic of Lucca followed the fortune of the neighbouring cities in Tuscany, till they purchased their independency of the emperor Rodolph for ten thousand crowns, in 1279, since which time they have continued a free state. The circumference of this republic does not exceed thirty Italian miles, yet the fertility of the soil, and clemency of the government have proved such prevalent motives to settling here, that the inhabitants of the city, together with those of the hundred and fifty villages, of which the republic consists, are said to amount to one hundred and twenty thousand, thirty thousand of which are capable of bearing arms. The territories of the grand-duke entirely encompass those of Lucca; so that a foreign force only can prevent this republic from falling under the yoke of the grand-duke of Tuscany; nor have those princes failed often to shew their desire of uniting this delightful spot with their own dominions, and reducing Lucca to the same circumstances with Florence, Sienna, and Pisa. The situation of Lucca being such, an universal harmony among the members of that republic is absolutely necessary, if they are desirous of transmitting to their posterity the blessings of liberty, their darling idol, with whose image they decorate their coins, their city-gates, and public buildings. The republic is governed by a council of state, and a great council: the former is composed of the gonfalonier, or doge, and nine senators, who are all members of the latter, or great council. These senators are termed *anziani*, or *elders*, have the title of *Excellentissimi*, and, during their office, which continues only two months, have apartments in the palace of the republic, and are maintained at the public expence. A doge cannot

not be re-elected till seven years after the expiration of his office. The great council consists of one hundred and thirty nobles and ten burghers, who enjoy their office two years. A corps of seventy-six Switzers form the doge's guard; the other forces belonging to the republic amount to about five hundred men, and its annual revenue to about four hundred thousand scudi, or eighty thousand pounds sterling.

The city of Lucca is about three Italian miles in circumference, and is defended by eleven bastions, on which two hundred and eighty pieces of cannon are mounted. Several rows of trees are planted round the walls, which render the walks on them very pleasant. The city is situated in the middle of a delightful plain, which is every where terminated by a chain of mountains; and from the diligence of its inhabitants in their silk and other manufactures, has acquired the honourable epithet of *Industriosa, the Industrious*. They extract from a small, but excellent sort of olives, the finest oil of any in Italy; and from this commodity the republic derives considerable advantages. It would be unjust not to commend the inhabitants, of whom there are near four thousand in the city, for their justice, candour, and polite behaviour. Their police is very attentive in suppressing luxury and superfluous expences, too often the destruction of useful families.

Dominions of the Pope.

THE dominions of the pope, composing what the Italians call *Stato della Chiesa*, or *the States of the Holy See*, are bounded on the north by the territories of the state of Venice and the Adriatic Sea; on the east by the kingdom of Naples; on the south by the Mediterranean; and on the west by the dominions of the great-duke and the duchies of Modena, Mirandola, and Mantua. The greatest length of this country, computed from Francolino, in the duchy of Ferrara, to Terracina, in Campagna di Roma, which is a line from the north-east to south-west, may be about two hundred and forty Italian miles; as to the breadth, from Civita Vecchia, in the Patrimony of St. Peter, to Ancona, is about one hundred and thirty miles; but in many other places it is not near so broad.

The situation of the papal dominions, thus lying in the very middle of Italy, and going quite across from the gulf of Venice to the Mediterranean, is an advantage that

that (except the king of the Two Sicilies) no other prince in that country enjoys but the pope himself. We will speak of the several territories of which these dominions are composed, in their natural order, beginning with the country that lies farthest to the north-west, which is the duchy of Ferrara. This, which was formerly one of the finest principalities in Italy, lies stretched upon the gulf of Venice, the river Po running through it, and falling there into the sea. The climate was formerly good, and the soil fruitful, producing corn, flax, hemp, and other valuable commodities, which made the duke rich and the people happy; but now things are quite altered, for the country lying low, and being thinly inhabited, the inundations of the Po have rendered a great part of it a morass; and Ferrara, from being one of the finest in Italy, now scarce deserves the name of a city. The town and county of Comachio is no better than a fishing-village, surrounded by unwholesome marshes. The Bolognese is still a very fine country, and retains something of its ancient freedom; the capital is styled Bologna, or Bononia the Fat, from the fertility of its territory in corn, wine, and flax. Fort Urban, which stands ten miles from Bologna, is a fortress built to cover the pope's frontier on this side. The Bolognese is an inland country, but as it lies between Tuscany and the duchy of Mantua, the road through it creates some little trade. The country of Romagna is next, lying upon the gulf of Venice, and very pleasant and fruitful, being watered by several fine rivers, and enriched by its salt mines; the capital is Ravenna the Old, as the Italians call it, and, indeed, its appearance speaks it so, for it is now fallen very much to decay. The duchy of Urbino lies also upon the Venetian gulf, and though it was formerly reckoned a fine country when under princes of its own, there is nothing more certain than that the air is very unwholesome, and the soil extremely barren; the best place now is Pesaro, on the coast of the Adriatic, from whence it enjoys some trade, and is tolerably well built. The marquisate of Ancona lies on the same gulf; the city from whence it receives its name, was formerly famous for its port, now in a very low and poor condition; but Loretto, which stands about ten miles from it, is famous for its riches, acquired by the concourse of pilgrims to the Santa Casa. The territory of Citta de Castella is small, and derives its name from that place, which stands on the river Tiber, and is pleasant and well built. The Perugian lies next, and abounds with excellent wine and
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very good corn. The capital is Perugia, enriched by its famous lake well stored with excellent fish. The Orvietano lies next, so called from its capital Orvieto, a small but beautiful country, rich in corn and wine, and enjoying the best air in the pope's dominions. Adjoining to this province lies the duchy of Castro, belonging formerly to the dukes of Parma and Placentia, but rejoined to the Holy See, partly by usury, and partly by violence; the pope's possession was quieted by a treaty with the emperor Charles VI. in 1724; but it is possible the old title to it derived from the dukes of Parma, on a favourable occasion may yet be revived. The Patrimony of St. Peter lies on the Mediterranean, and is fruitful in corn and wine, and famous also for its alum mines; the capital of it is Viterbo, anciently a fine place, now little better than a heap of ruins. Porto, formerly, as its name signifies, a noble haven, is now capable only of receiving barks; but Civita Vecchia has still a fine port, and would be a very considerable place, if the unwholesomeness of its air did not render it thinly peopled, and the laziness of those people who dwell in it did not contribute to the unwholesomeness of the air, by leaving their country uncultivated. Umbria, or the duchy of Spoleto, is a country well watered, and much diversified in its appearance, in some parts mountainous, in others marshy, but intermixed with plains fruitful in corn, wine, oil, and fruits; the capital is Spoleto, and there are some other good towns in this country, which is owing to a little trade stirring there. The province of Sabina, which takes its name from the Sabines, is small, but very fruitful and pleasant. The country about Rome, called Campagna di Roma, would be wholesome and fruitful if well cultivated; but at present it is neither, especially in some seasons of the year, when the capital becomes a kind of desert, being alike abandoned by strangers and its best inhabitants, for the sake of enjoying a purer climate. A project is said to be now on foot for draining the Pontine marshes, which will be a means of preventing their noxious effluvia, and withal acquire a considerable tract of land for the purposes of agriculture.

Besides these, the pope has other dominions, as well in Italy as elsewhere. The kingdom of Naples is held from him by an annual tribute. The duchies of Parma and Placentia were part of the patrimony of the church; but by the famous quadruple alliance, they are declared to be fiefs of the empire, and are like to be considered in

that light for the future. The principality of Masseran, belonging formerly to the family of Fiasque, and at present to the king of Sardinia, is held in like manner from the pope. Other dominions he has in possession, which are held from other princes, such as the territory of Benevento, in the kingdom of Naples, the archbishop of which is the second ecclesiastical dignity in that kingdom; and the county of Avignon in the south of France, in which, while they were deprived of Rome, the popes themselves resided, who still govern it by a vice-legate; and this, in every respect, is a very considerable acquisition, of which the pope's are particularly tender, and which is the only part of their possessions obtained in the way of a fair purchase.

Having thus fairly and clearly stated the just extent of the pope's dominions, we might think, that after the two crowned heads, he is the most considerable power in Italy; and yet, though his government is truly despotic; and his subjects the hardest used of any in Italy, his revenue is below that of any other prince; for it has never been computed at above two millions of Roman crowns; whereas Tuscany, that has not half the extent of territory, produces twice as much to the grand-duke. His regular troops are now only fit for shew, hardly any of his fortresses in a state of defence; and though we sometimes hear of the pope's gallies, his naval power is very inconsiderable. We must, however, in justice to some of the last popes, allow, that they have endeavoured to correct the errors of their predecessors, and that their subjects have lived much easier under them; but then these amendments have extended no farther than to keep things from growing worse, and much more must be done before they can be expected to grow better.

Hitherto we have considered only the state of the temporal monarchy of the pope, but if we take a view of his spiritual monarchy, we shall find, that though, like some of the leaning towers, which have made so much noise in Italy, it seems, since the Reformation to carry evident marks of weakness; yet, in fact, it is still a structure very strong in itself, contrived with great skill, and supported with much art. If in other monarchies princes have pretended to a divine right, the pope goes still farther, and claims a kind of divine power, by which he is raised as much above other princes, as these princes are above their people. This claim, together with the title of Holy lines, having the recommendation of a long prescription, cannot

cannot but excite a high veneration in the minds of such as believe it. The papal character being given with the greatest ceremony by those who are presumed to be the best judges of religion and religious interests, seems, in the opinion of the multitude, to alter the very name of him who is adorned therewith, and to transform him from a man of like passions with themselves into a sacred person. It is true, that in Protestant countries, as nothing of this is believed, so it is very hard to be understood. Yet the fact is beyond dispute, and whatever wiser persons in popish kingdoms may conceive, the bulk of the people have the highest reverence for the holy father.

The close connection between the clergy in all popish countries and the court of Rome, joined to the occasional benefits that monarchs themselves may receive by bulls from the holy see, makes them unwilling to interpose, or break off that commerce which their subjects have with Rome, that upon certain occasions they may derive favours from thence, which may easily procure what otherwise might with difficulty be forced by their own authority. We may add to this another reason, which is, that the popish princes cherish the spiritual power of the pope, as the means of preserving unity in religion, and thereby preventing religious disputes, which very seldom disturb the church without disturbing the state also. Thus it appears, that, independent of enthusiasm and superstition, political principles have no small share in promoting that adherence to the see of Rome, which, at first sight, seems so irreconcilable to the absolute authority of sovereign princes, and which, notwithstanding by their dextrous management, is often made to co-operate therewith.

In these points of view, one may with great truth and impartiality venture to assert, that the whole scheme of the Romish religion is admirably well adjusted to maintain, in every respect, the power of the supreme head. He is reputed by many doctors of the church of Rome infallible, that his decisions may have the greater weight; the traditions of the church, which with the members of it pass for a rule of faith, are subject to his controul; all religious doctrines are liable to his censure; the power of absolution, even in the highest cases, is attributed to him; he dispenses the spiritual treasures of the church, such as pardons and indulgences; he grants dispensations of all

kinds;

kinds; he regulates fasts and feasts at his pleasure: in a word, being reputed the successor of St. Peter, and the visible head of the Christian church, he has prerogatives without bounds, and without number; so that it is not in the least surprising, that so much power, directed by the great policy of its spiritual forces, should be able to perform such mighty things, and to preserve itself for so many ages. These spiritual forces are the several ranks and orders of men, subject in an especial manner to the holy see. In the first class of these stand the cardinals, who are acknowledged princes of the church, and pretend to be next in dignity to crowned heads. They were originally no more than the parish-priests of Rome, and their number sometimes greater, sometimes less; but now fixed to seventy-two, in allusion to Christ's disciples. Heretofore a cardinal was content to be styled his Excellency; but now they assume the title of Eminence, which was formerly given to princes, and thereupon the latter took the title of Highness. The cardinals are of all nations, that the influence arising from the hopes of this dignity may be the more extensive. The nomination to hats by crowned heads is a new stroke of Roman policy, which heightens the dependence upon the holy see, while it seems to lessen the papal authority. The majority, however, are always Italians, to prevent the throne from being filled by a stranger; and it is provided, that in all elections the person chosen shall have the voices of two thirds of those who enter the conclave, that there may never be a strong faction against the pope among the cardinals, which might be attended with ill consequences. All the subordinate dignities of the church may be considered as the nobility in the pope's spiritual empire: but in all others, so in this, the strength of the monarchy consists in the number of its subjects, and if we take into our view the secular and regular clergy in the church of Rome, the former bound by the most sacred ties, and the latter not by vows only, but by their interests, to the obedience of the holy see, we cannot but entertain a high idea of its power, since not long ago it was the calculation of a certain sovereign pontiff, that in Europe he had three hundred thousand parishes, and fifty thousand convents subject to his jurisdiction. The constant resort of all these to Rome upon different occasions, must carry thither annually an immense treasure.

Rome, the capital of the pope's dominions and of Italy, stands on the river Tiber, about sixteen miles

north-east of the Tuscan-Sea. The walls are about twelve miles in circumference, as they were in the time of the Romans; but not a third part of the ground within the walls is now built upon; the rest is taken up with vineyards and gardens; and the inhabitants are computed to amount to one hundred and twenty thousand souls. There are five bridges over the river, twenty gates, and three hundred antique towers still remaining. The castle of St. Angelo is a modern fortification, but of no great strength, and serves rather to keep the inhabitants in awe, than to defend them against foreign enemies. Modern Rome stands fourteen or fifteen feet higher than the old city, being built on the ruins of the former, and is much more upon a level than the old city was, great part of the hills being washed down into the vallies, infomuch, that the Tarpeian rock, which was once a terrible precipice from whence malefactors were thrown, is not now more than twenty feet high. The city is generally magnificently built; the streets spacious, and adorned with three hundred fine churches, and a vast number of palaces and convents; and the triumphal arches, pillars, obelisks, statues, and fountains, are no small addition to its beauty; but then there are other streets as meanly built as in any town whatever. The greatest curiosities in Rome are the ancient theatres and amphitheatres, Pagan temples, triumphal arches, baths, aqueducts, fountains, catacombs, obelisks, cirques, sepulchres, bridges, churches, palaces, statues, paintings, piazzas, colleges, and hospitals. It is said that the people of this city are more obliging than in any town of Europe, and that an universal civility reigns here. They are not in the least possessed with a spirit of bigotry or persecution against strangers of any country or religion whatever. The city is extremely well supplied with water by their noble aqueducts and fountains, and there is great plenty of all manner of provisions, as corn, flesh, fish, fowl, and fruits; and the greatest variety of wines that are to be met with any where: in the midst of all this variety, the people are extremely sober; never sitting down purely to drink, and very seldom drinking wine without water.

Kingdom of Naples.

NAPLES is by far the largest state in Italy. It is bounded on the north-side by the Adriatic Sea, on the south by the Tuscan, on the west by the ecclesiastical state;

state, and on the east by the mouth of the Adriatic and the Mediterranean. The air and soil are extremely delightful and excellent in most places; and the country in general is very rich, fertile, and well watered, with rivers and springs, which flow through it from both sides of the Appennines: these rivers are, indeed, commonly so rapid, that they may be rather called torrents. The land produces excellent wines, especially that emphatically called *Lachrymæ Christi*. They have, in several parts, plenty of corn, but not sufficient for the consumption of the country, and the harvest in Sicily failing in 1763, occasioned the year following, a plague and a famine in Naples. They have likewise oil, rice, and pretty good pasture; and the Neapolitan horses are in no small request. Their almonds, olives, figs, citrons, oranges, pomegranates, grapes, and other fruits, are very good and in great plenty; and so are their flax, hemp, pulse, anise, coriander, and other seeds. The air is, indeed, in some places excessively hot, especially on the south side of the Appennines, where the mountains reflect the sun's heat with such vehemence, that it is hardly to be borne in the three or four hot months of the year; but the north side of them is quite temperate, healthy, and delightful. They are sometimes annoyed with the locust.

The far greater part of the provinces into which this kingdom is divided, have advantages peculiar to themselves. For instance, the air of the Hither Principality is so serene and healthy, that people live in it to a prodigious age; and the Farther Principality abounds in cattle more than any other, and all its fruits are excellent. The Basilicate is famed for its fine saffron, honey, and wax; Calabria for its plenty of good manna; the Hither for corn, wines, and mulberries, and the Farther for its fine honey and beautiful horses. Otranto is said to produce as much oil as would supply all Italy. Molise abounds with such a quantity of venison, that it sells cheaper there than beef or mutton. The territories of Lavoro, Campania, and some others, are blessed with so rich a soil, and excellent a temperature, that they produce the same flowers twice a year. The Abruzzo, especially the Hither, besides being the coolest part of the kingdom, produces great quantity of corn, wines, oil, and saffron. The other three provinces not only come short of all those conveniences mentioned in the rest, but have, moreover, some grievous disadvantages peculiar to them; as, in the Capatinate, the soil is dry, sandy, and in many places

barren, and the climate unhealthy. In Apulia, the heat is so excessive, and the people and cattle plagued with such swarms of venomous flies, that it is scarce habitable. In the province of Bari the air is pretty temperate; but the people are generally infested with scorpions, vipers, and serpents, especially the tarantula, which renders their territory as uncomfortable as that of Apulia.

The capital of the same name with the kingdom, is situated one hundred and forty miles south-east of Rome. It is seven miles in circumference within the walls, and as much more if the suburbs are included, and contains about three hundred thousand inhabitants. It stands on an eminence, rising gradually from the sea to a moderate height, on a fine bay of the sea of thirty miles diameter; and the islands which lie before it form a secure and commodious harbour. On the east is a large plain, on the farther side of which is mount Vesuvius, and on the west a large hill, on which stands the castle of St. Elmo, and a Carthusian monastery, from whence there is the finest prospect in the world. Here it is seldom cold in winter; and in summer the cool breezes from the mountains and the sea make the hottest part of it tolerable; nor is the sea subject to storms, and the shore is so bold, that large ships may lie close to the quays. The buildings are magnificent and elegant, and inhabited by people of distinction; nor can there be in all respects a more desirable situation, did not the eruptions of Vesuvius, and earthquakes, sometimes disturb their quiet. This mount, within a mile and a half of the top, is covered so thick with the ashes of the burnt earth, and grows so steep, that it is very difficult to ascend it, and sometimes it continues on fire for the better part of a month, throwing out burning matter with such force, that some of it falls at thirty miles distance; and a vast quantity of melted minerals, mixed with other matter, runs down like a river for three miles, carrying every thing before it which lies in its way; and sometimes such quantities of cinders and ashes are thrown out, that it is dark at Naples at noon day.

M. de la Condamine observes in his *Journal of a Tour to Italy*, that we meet every step we take, on the road from Naples to Rome, and from Rome to Viterbo, Loreto, and other parts, productions like the lava of Vesuvius, whence he presumes it follows, that all this part of Italy has been overturned by volcanos. These plains, which at present appear smiling and fertile, covered with olive-trees, mulberry-trees, and vineyards, as are also to this
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very day even the sides of Vefuvius, have formerly been, like them, over-run with burning waves, and like them bear not only in their bowels, but even on their surface, the vestiges of those torrents of fire, the billows of which are at present grown cold again and condensed. It is well known, adds he, that Naples is paved with this lava; but it is surprising that nobody has yet remarked that the pavement of Rome is also composed of the same materials. As much may be said of the pavement of the greater part of the ancient Roman highways, and perhaps of all those of which any vestiges are remaining from Rome to Naples, as well as on the road from Naples to Puzzuoli and Cumæ. In short it is the same with the Appian Way, which still subsists, and makes a part of the high road from Rome to Naples. This antique pavement is entirely composed of lava. We shall be less surprised at this, when we come to know that the foundations of the houses in the subterranean city of Herculaneum, built now two thousand years ago are pure lava. This proves evidently, that the great eruptions of Vefuvius are not all of them posterior to that which swallowed up the city of Herculaneum, and that vast conflagrations have happened anterior to all historical monuments. But though the city of Herculaneum is, in fact, buried under several strata of lava, properly so called, yet we must not imagine, that its streets, squares, and buildings are covered with lava: were this the case, neither the pick-axe nor chissel would be able to penetrate there. The matter with which the anterior parts of the city are filled has never been either fused or liquid. It is only one immense mass of cinders, earth, gravel, sand, coal, pumice-stones, and other materials, launched forth through the mouth of the volcano at the time of its explosion, and fallen again in heaps in all the circumjacent parts. These at first buried all the houses; by degrees they penetrated into the interior parts, as well by their own proper weight, as by the assistance of wind and rains, and lastly, by the roofs and timbers giving way. This mixture being united by the infiltration of the waters, has condensed in process of time, and formed a kind of sand-stone, more or less hard, but every where easy to be dug through.

The kingdom of Naples was, probably, first peopled from Greece, which lies but a little to the eastward of it: certain it is, the Greeks sent several colonies hither afterwards, and gave it the name of Magna Græcia. This, with the rest of Italy, was subdued by the Romans; and,

on the decline of that empire, in the fifth century, the Eastern emperor possessed himself of one part of Naples, and the Goths of the other. The Lombards dispossessed the Goths of their part, and remained masters of it, until they were expelled by Charlemagne, about the year 800. In the ninth and tenth centuries, the Saracens subdued a great part of Naples; but the pope, with the assistance of other Christian powers, drove out the Saracens again: in which service, Tancred the Norman, and his twelve sons, having had a great share, part of Naples was given them by the pope. Robert, the son of Tancred, was created duke of Apulia and Calabria by the German emperor; and Roger, the son of Robert, was made king of the Two Sicilies, viz. Naples and Sicily. The heirs of Tancred enjoyed this crown till the year 1166, when, happening to disoblige the pope, he introduced the earl of Anjou and the French, and his posterity were kings of Naples and Sicily, till the Spaniards dispossessed them about the year 1504. The kings of Spain continued sovereigns of Naples till 1707, when the Spaniards were driven from thence by the imperialists, and Naples was confirmed to the emperor Charles VI. by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713. The French, Spaniards, and Sardinians, entering into a war with the emperor, in 1734, reduced Naples, and made don Carlos, the king of Spain's son, king of Naples; and he was confirmed in that throne by the emperor, at a subsequent treaty. He continued in possession of that kingdom till his late accession to the crown of Spain, having procured his third son Ferdinand, born the 12th of January, 1751, to be made king in his room.

The dignified clergy and nobility of this kingdom are very numerous. These are, it is said, twenty-five archbishops, one hundred and twenty-five bishops, and three hundred princes, dukes, marquesses, and earls. The clergy possess one third of the kingdom; the crown, nobility, and gentry, the rest; the peasants have scarce any thing they can call their own; they are subjects and vassals to their respective lords, manure their lands, plant their vineyards and olive-yards, and are allowed only a subsistence sufficient to enable them to perform their daily drudgery, and receive justice in their lords courts in cases that are not capital, insomuch that every lord or gentleman, who is proprietor of the soil, is sovereign of the people who live upon his estate. The Neapolitans have a numerous militia, the nobility and gentry holding their
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lands by military tenures; but these are little depended on, and seldom called out, the king usually maintaining fifteen thousand regular troops in time of peace, and being able to raise twice that number in time of war. The revenues of the crown are computed to amount to one million sterling.

The goodness of the port of Naples draws thither a great number of foreign shipping. They were daily, under the late reign of don Carlos, endeavouring to render the same more grand and magnificent: its principal trade consists in divers sorts of silk stuffs, raw silk, knit silk stockings and waistcoats; oils of various sorts, sulphur after the Calabrian manner, rosemary flowers, anise and coriander seed, dried raisins, raisins of Corinth, figs and olives, tartar, soap, dried orange and citron peels, essences and quintessences of all kinds.

S E C T VI.

Of Switzerland.

WE must now return from the south of Italy to the north, to take a view of Switzerland, a country which, though surrounded with rocks, and in a manner inaccessible, yet is very considerable, and of great consequence from its situation.

The dominions of the Switzers are bounded on the north by part of Alsace, the Black Forest, and the circle of Swabia; on the east by the country of Tyrol; on the south by the duchies of Savoy and Milan, by the territories of Bergamo and Brescia; and on the west by the Franche Compté, or county of Burgundy. It appears from hence that they have for neighbours the subjects of the house of Austria, those of the crown of France, the king of Sardinia, and the state of Venice. We need nothing more to give us very high notions of the force and bravery of this nation, than the bare observation, that they have not only preserved their freedom in spite, but have been also always formidable to the most potent of their neighbours: yet their country is very far from being large; in length somewhat less than three hundred, and in breadth very little more than a hundred miles.

The inhabitants of Switzerland may be divided into three parts: first, the Swiss, properly so called, or the thirteen cantons, which stand in the following order:

1. Zurich;

1. Zurich; 2. Bern; 3. Lucern; 4. Wic; 5. Switz; 6. Underwald; 7. Zug; 8. Glaris; 9. Bazil, or Basle; 10. Friburg; 11. Soluthurn; 12. Schaffhausen; and, 13. Appenzel. Of which the protestant cantons are, Zurich, Bern, Bazil, and Schaffhausen, with above two-thirds of the canton of Glaris, and more than half of Appenzel; the people in the rest are all Roman Catholics.

Secondly, the subjects of the Switzers, which are either such towns and bailliages as belong to them all, or to several in common, or that depend upon several cantons. Of the former they reckon nine; viz. the county of Baden, the Free Villages, the counties of Turgovy, Sargantz, and Rhintal, and the four Italian bailliages of Lugano, Locarno, Mendrisco, and Valmodia, to which we must add the three cities without territory of Boemgarten, Mellingen, and Rapperswail. The four Italian bailliages were dismembered from the duchy of Milan, and belong to all the cantons except Appenzel, which at that time was not admitted into the alliance. Three other bailliages in Italy, viz. Pellinzona, Valbrima, and Riviera, were conquered by the cantons of Zurich, Switz, and Underwald, from the dukes of Milan. The little territory of Alfax, and the county of Werdenberg, both seated on the Rhine, belong the former to the canton of Zurich, and the latter to that of Glaris. The bailliage of Gasteren belongs to the cantons of Switz and Glaris; and the cantons of Bern and Friburg possess the four bailliages of Morat, Gremton, Echelens, Swartzenburg, which they conquered from the dukes of Savoy.

Thirdly, the allies of the Switzers are the Grisons, who are divided into three leagues, that of the Grisons, of the House of God, and of the Ten Jurisdictions: they are partly Protestants, and partly Roman Catholics, and have also a considerable conquered country that belongs to them: the town and county of Neufchatel, of which the king of Prussia is sovereign; the abbot and city of St. Gall; the little republic of Wallis; the city and republic of Geneva; the town of Bienne or Biel, allied to the canton of Bern; and the town of Mulhausen, not far from Bazil, to which it is allied.

The Switzers, formerly called the Helvetians, were brought under the dominion of the Romans by Julius Cæsar, who added their country to his province of Gaul. They were afterwards part of the kingdom of Burgundy, then subject to France, and then to the German empire: but, being oppressed, they threw off their allegiance, and erected

erected several independent states; and, at the treaty of Westphalia, in 1648, they were acknowledged free and independent. There is hardly one of the cantons, states, or cities, above mentioned, that agrees with another in point of government; and, indeed, every kind of government that ever was invented is to be found amongst them; yet they are all maintained under their respective forms; and in their respective rights, from that common love of freedom and justice, which prevails generally among the whole nation.

The greatest part of their country is the most rugged in its appearance, and naturally the most barren in its soil of any in Europe; and yet by dint of labour and cultivation they render it tolerably fruitful. All their cities are well built, populous, and many of their inhabitants live pretty much at their ease, which is owing partly to their industry, and partly to their frugality. The gentry of Switzerland, notwithstanding what is generally reported of them, are, generally speaking, tolerably educated, and, from their seeing foreign countries, commonly well bred. Their traders have great privileges, and some of them are in wealthy circumstances; and as for their peasants, they are very hardy and laborious. As their women are justly reputed very honest, as well as very good housewives, so they are, generally speaking, very prolific, and their country being but narrow, this lays them under an absolute necessity of sending out numbers every year to seek their bread in foreign countries. Being naturally of a martial disposition, and accustomed to arms from their youth, they usually seek some foreign service or other; those of the Roman Catholic cantons go into the French and Spanish pay; those of the Protestants, and not a few others likewise, into that of the States General; but wherever they are, they have the honour to be accounted as good troops as any in the world. After some years service more or less, according to their contracts, the private men return home, though their corps remain still in foreign service, and are, from time to time, filled up with fresh recruits. It is owing to these people who have served abroad, both officers and soldiers, that the Swiss are never at a loss for as large and well-disciplined an army as any government in Europe can raise, which are at the same time the guardians of their own liberty, and the protectors of their neighbours freedom. Neither is their power grounded only on opinion, for they have defended themselves, at different times, against most of the great powers in Europe;

rope; and though they have been sometimes outwitted yet they were never beaten, or reduced to demand peace by any power whatever; so that they may be justly considered, taking in their situation and militia, as the most unconquerable people in Europe.

It is very difficult to make a just computation of the force of the Swiss. Things are much changed with them from what they were formerly. They have now several good fortresses, though heretofore they had none. Several of the cantons are now very rich, and besides great sums locked up at home, they have also great wealth in foreign banks, and particularly in our funds. Every great city is well furnished with artillery, and at Bern and Zurich they have field and battering trains of brass cannon, than which there are few better in Europe. Yet with all this force, they are not in the least formidable to those that live near them, since they are without doubt the very best neighbours in the world; so void of ambition that they have no idea of conquest, such lovers of justice that the very report of oppression will bring them to the relief of the distressed. By this means the city of Geneva has been often, and will probably be always, protected against two very formidable powers, one the most enterprizing, and the other the most ambitious, in Europe.

It is in this country, and its confines, that the Alps, the highest mountains in Europe, excite the attention of travellers. The melting of the snows in summer, being suspended every night in their gorges, and renewed again every day during the hours in which the sun is hottest, gives occasion to very fantastical appearances. A valley, in whose depth the eye is lost, covered with rough pieces of ice resembling waves, and the whole surface of this sea again congealed, and intersected here and there with deep crevices; the noise of a subterraneous torrent which sustains this enormous mass, and changes the appearance, as well as level of it from day to day; all these effects wrought by changes that are almost sudden, and variously combined of heat and cold, can scarce be seen any where else in so astonishing a degree: they form together a very singular spectacle, worthy the curiosity of naturalists, and calculated to furnish a variety of observations.

S E C T. VII.

Of the Austrian, French, and United Netherlands.

THIS country was anciently called Gallia Belgica, and the inhabitants Belgæ, but was of a much larger extent than the present Netherlands; of which the boundaries now, are the German Ocean, or North Sea, on the north; the British Sea, with part of Picardy, on the west; the rest of Picardy, with Champagne or Lorraine, on the south; and the archbishoprick of Triers and Treves, the duchies of Juliers and Cleves, the bishoprick of Munster, and the county of Embden, or East Friesland, on the east. It is situated between 49 deg. 25 min. to 53 deg. 25 min. of latitude; and between 2 deg. 5 min. to 6 deg. 50 min. of longitude, east from London.

The greatest part of the Netherlands was conquered by the Romans; and that part which lies towards Gaul continued in their subjection till the decline of that empire; after which the Franks became masters of it; and, under the French monarchy, it was part of the kingdom of Metz or Austrasia.

The division of the Netherlands into so many states is derived from the earls or counts of Ardenne. Their origin was from the sons of Clodion, king of France, who, being kept out of that succession by Merovee, were forced, for their security, to betake themselves to the most defensible places of the forest of Ardenne, and the countries on the banks of the Moselle, where they founded the two great earldoms of the Moselle, and the Ardenne. The former belongs to Germany; the latter comprehended part of Flanders and Brabant, all Hainault, Namur, Limburg, and Luxemburg, together with the duchy of Bouillon. These large estates continued peaceably under the earls of Ardenne for some time, who, growing powerful and great, became the envy of their neighbours, and were attacked by Dagobert, king of Metz, and son to Clotharius II. king of France, who in battle overcame and slew Brunulph, earl of Ardenne, and seized his country, giving only Hainault as an earldom to Albert, his son. Dagobert succeeded his father in the kingdom of Neustria, in 629, whereby he became king of almost all France, being before king of Metz or Austrasia, and of Burgundy: he gave away several parts of the country or earldom of Ardenne; but the rest

rest still bore the title of an earldom, and continued for a long time a very considerable state.

Towards the year 940, Luxemburg and Limburg were given to two of the younger sons of Ricuine, earl of Ardenne, and, about the same time, Namur was erected into an earldom: the rest came afterwards by marriage to the house of Lorrain; which continued in possession of it a long time. Such is the origin of the earldoms of Luxemburg, Limburg, and Namur.

Part of Brabant, as above observed, was included in the earldom of Ardenne; the other part, which lies towards the sea, was very much infested, and even almost depopulated by the depredations of the Danes and Normans; wherefore, to guard the coast, and protect the inhabitants, a certain officer was appointed, called lord warden of the marches, which title was continued till Utilo, nephew of Aldiagerius, king of the Boioarians (the people of Bavaria), having shewn great courage against these pirates, was honoured with the title of lord marquis of Antwerp: one of his descendents, named Ansegestus was maire of the palace in France, and made duke of Brabant; and his great-grandson, Pepin, obtaining the crown of France, that duchy became a province of that kingdom, and was afterwards part of the kingdom of Lorrain. About the year 980, the cities and territories of Brussels, Louvain, Antwerp, and Nivelles, were separated from the duchy of Brabant, and made a new state, with the title of the marquisate of the holy empire, by the emperor Otho II. and given to his aunt, whose grand-daughter Gerburg, succeeding her, conveyed it by marriage to Lambert, son of Reyner, earl of Hainault, who had the title of earl of Louvain: he was succeeded in it by his descendents, one of whom, named Godfrey VII. earl of Louvain, conquered the rest of the country, and was created duke of Brabant.

Flanders was a wild and waste country, the sea-coasts being infested by the Danish pirates, and the other parts but meanly cultivated, till it was conquered by the French kings, - who, soon after the establishment of their monarchy, appointed a certain officer, with the title of forester of Flanders, to suppress the robbers who infested the woods and the sea-coasts, and by government and protection to civilize the people, and encourage them to industry. This office continued in the same family for several descents, and was at length changed into the title
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of a count or earl, about the year 864, by Charles the Bald, emperor and king of France, in favour of Baldwin, the seventh forester, who had married his sister.

Artois was included in the earldom of Flanders, till the year 1234, when Robert, grandson of Philip Augustus, king of France, and husband to Isabella, daughter of Baldwin VIII. earl of Flanders, was made earl of Artois.

Guelderland was part of the French kingdom of Austrasia, and with it became part of the empire of Germany; and as such was governed by certain guardians, or protectors, first instituted in the reign of Charles the Bald, of whom Otho of Nassau was the first free prince, created earl by the emperor Henry V. in the year 1079; and his descendent Raynold, was made duke of Guelderland in 1339.

Zutphen was a separate earldom for many years, till it became united with Guelderland, by the marriage of Otho of Nassau, just now mentioned, with Sophia the daughter of Wickman, the last earl of Zutphen.

Holland and Zealand, a rude unpeopled country, being much infested by the Norman piracies, were first made an earldom by the emperor Lewis II. about the year 863, and given to Thierry, in whose line the succession continued till the death of John, about the year 1300, who, leaving no issue, was succeeded by John of Avesnes, earl of Hainault, son of Alcide, the daughter of Florence IV. earl of Holland.

Friseland was but a part of the country of the ancient Frisii, some part of Utrecht and Overijssel, as well as East Friseland in Germany, being inhabited by those people, who were goverued by their own kings, till they were conquered by Charlemagne; and this part, now one of the seventeen province, was annexed to the duchy of Guelderland, and was afterwards a distinct barony.

Overijssel and Groningen were part of the episcopal see of Utrecht, first founded about the year 600, by Dagobert, king of France, in favour of Willibald, an Englishman, the first converter of these countries to Christianity, whose successors were temporal as well as spiritual lords of their diocese, for nine hundred years, and were very powerful princes.

It being thought necessary thus briefly to mention the origin of these dukedoms, earldoms, and lordships, we shall now relate how they came to be all subject to the house of Austria.

Philip,

*How the
Nether-
lands
became
subject to
the house
of Austria.*

Philip, surnamed the Hardy, or Bold, duke of Burgundy, and son of John, king of France, married Margaret the only daughter of Lewis de Male, or Malain, earl of Flanders and Artois, and succeeded to these two earldoms after the death of Lewis, who died in the year 1383. Antony of Burgundy, the second son of Philip, got the duchies of Brabant and Limburg, the marquifate of the holy empire, and the lordship of Mechlin, or Malines, in the year 1406, as heir to Jane, his aunt, by the father's side, the daughter of John III. duke of Brabant, and sister to Margaret, the wife of Lewis de Male. He left two sons, John IV. who died April the 17th, 1426, and Philip, who died August the 4th, 1430. As they both died childless, Philip the Good, duke of Burgundy, their first cousin, succeeded to those duchies, to the marquifate, and to the lordship of Mechlin: he had bought, in the year 1429, the county of Namur of Thierry, the last earl, leaving him, however, the title and profits of it till his death. John, the son of Philip the Good, had married Margaret, the daughter of Albert of Bavaria, earl of Holland, and sister to William, the father of Joan of Bavaria, countess of Hainault, Holland, and Zealand, and lady of Frizeland. This countess had four husbands, but no children by any of them; so that Philip the Good, who was her first cousin, inherited all her estates, the administration and government of which she had been obliged to give up to him some years before she died. The same Philip did, in the year 1443, seize upon the duchy of Luxemburg, having driven out of it William, duke of Brunswick, who had usurped it from Elizabeth, the widow of Antony, duke of Brabant, and daughter of John of Luxemburg, duke of Gorlitz, who was brother to the emperors Wenceslaus and Sigismund. Charles, the son of Philip the Good, bought, in the year 1472, the duchy of Guelderland, and the county of Zutphen, of Arnold of Egmond, the father of Adolphus, who was a prisoner at Courtray; but Charles being killed in the year 1476, Catherine, the sister of Adolphus, retook Guelderland for her nephew, Charles of Egmond. Mary, the only daughter and heiress of Charles, duke of Burgundy, just now mentioned, married Maximilian of Austria, son of the emperor Ferdinand III. and brought him in marriage the duchies of Brabant, Limburg, and Luxemburg; the counties of Flanders, Burgundy, Hainault, Holland, Zealand, and Namur; and the lordships of Friseland. Philip of Austria, son to Maximilian and Mary, married Jane,

Jane, the daughter of Ferdinand, king of Arragon, and of Isabella, queen of Castile, by which means, their son Charles inherited not only almost all Spain, and the great countries then lately discovered in America, but also those noble provinces of the Netherlands; and was chosen emperor, under the name of Charles V. Towards the latter end of the year 1527, he added to his dominions the temporalities of the bishoprick of Utrecht, on both sides of the Yssel; and Henry of Bavaria, being distressed, through war with the duke of Guelderland, and tired with the continued rebellion of his own subjects, surrendered to the emperor the temporalities of his diocese, which was confirmed by the pope, and the states of the country. In 1536, Charles V. bought of Charles of Egmond the reversion of the duchy of Guelderland, and of the county of Zutphen, in case that prince should die without issue. The same year the city of Groningen took the oath of allegiance, and submitted to Charles V. and in 1543 he put a garrison in the city of Cambray, and built a citadel there. Having thus united the seventeen provinces, as it were in one body, he ordered that they should continue for ever under the same prince, without being ever separated or dismembered; for which purpose, he published in November, 1549, with the consent, and at the request of the states of all the provinces, a perpetual and irrevokable edict, or law, by which it was enacted, that in order to keep all those provinces together under one and the same prince, the right of representation, with regard to the succession of a prince, or princess, should take place for ever, both in a direct and collateral line, notwithstanding the common laws of some provinces to the contrary. Charles had even a mind to incorporate these provinces with the Germanic body, and to make of them a circle of the empire, under the title of the circle of Burgundy, in order thereby to engage princes of the empire to concern themselves for the preservation of those provinces. But the Netherlanders, always jealous of their liberty, did not seem to like that incorporation; and, when they were demanded to pay their share towards the expences of the empire, they refused it; whereupon the princes of Germany refused, in their turn, to take any part in the wars in Flanders, and looked upon those provinces as by no means belonging to the Germanic body.

Philip of Austria, and his son Charles, who were born in the Netherlands, had for these provinces that natural affection which men used to have for their native coun-

try; and, knowing how jealous the inhabitants were of their liberty, and of the privileges granted to them by their former princes, they took great care to preserve them, and suffered willingly, that the states, who were the guardians of the people's liberty and privileges, should, in a manner, share the supreme authority with them. Philip II. son to the emperor Charles V. had not the same affection for the Netherlands, nor those generous sentiments which his father had endeavoured to inspire him with. Being born in Spain, of a Portuguese woman, he had no regard but for his native country; and, when he removed out of the Netherlands, he left them to the weak government of a woman, to the proud and haughty spirit of cardinal de Granville, and to the wild ambition of some lords of these provinces, who, availing themselves of the imprudent conduct and continual blunders of the council of Spain, found their private interest in the disturbances they could not fail to produce. Philip II. also, instead of the mild and moderate measures which his predecessors had successfully employed, on many occasions, as best suiting the genius and temper of the people, had recourse to the most violent and cruel proceedings; which, far from curing the evil, served only to exasperate it the more, and render it incurable. The Spaniards, whom he sent thither, being born and educated in an absolute monarchy, jealous of the liberties, and envious of the riches of the people, broke through all their privileges, and used them almost after the same manner as they had done the inhabitants of their new and ill-gotten dominions in America. This treatment occasioned a general insurrection. The counts Hoorn, Egmont, and the prince of Orange, appearing at the head of it, and Luther's reformation gaining ground about the same time in the Netherlands, his disciples joined the malecontents: whereupon king Philip introduced a kind of inquisition, in order to suppress them, and many thousands were put to death by that court, besides those that perished by the sword; for these persecutions and incroachments had occasioned a civil war, in which several battles were fought. The counts Hoorn and Egmont were taken and beheaded; but the prince of Orange, retiring into Holland, did, by the assistance of England and France, preserve Holland and some of the adjacent provinces, which entered into a treaty for their mutual defence at Utrecht, in 1579, and they have ever since been styled the United Provinces; but the other provinces were reduced to the obedience of Spain,

Spain by the duke of Alva, and other Spanish generals. However, their ancient privileges were in a great measure restored; every province was allowed its great council, or parliament, whose concurrence was required to the making of laws, and raising money for the government, though these assemblies were too often obliged to follow the dictates of the court; and, as for those which have been reduced under the government of France, they are now under the same arbitrary dominion, as the rest of the subjects of that crown.

The Spaniards continued possessed of almost eight of these provinces, until the duke of Marlborough, general of the allies, gained the memorable victory of Ramillies. After which, Brussels, the capital, and great part of these provinces, acknowledged Charles VI. (afterwards emperor) their sovereign; and his daughter, the late empress-queen, remained possessed of them till the war that followed the death of her father, when the French made an entire conquest of them, except part of the province of Luxemburg; but they were restored by the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, and the French retain only Artois, the Cambresis, part of Flanders, part of Hainault, and part of Luxemburg, of which they have had the dominion now upwards of eighty years.

The soil is generally fruitful, but differs in the several parts. The climate also differs in the several provinces; in those towards the south it does not differ much from that of England, though the seasons are more regular. In the northern provinces the winter is generally very sharp, and the summer sultry hot; but the extreme cold, and excessive heat, seldom continue above five or six weeks. The air is reckoned very wholesome, but is subject to thick fogs in winter, through the moistness of the country, which would be very noxious, were it not for the dry easterly winds, which, blowing off a long continent for two or three months in the year, clear the air, and cause very sharp frosts in January and February; during which, the ports, rivers, and canals, are commonly shut up. The face of the country is low and flat, for, except some small hills, and a few rising grounds in the provinces of Utrecht and Guelderland, and in the parts lying towards Germany, there is no hill to be seen in the whole seventeen provinces. This is the reason that they have been called the Low Countries. The provinces towards the sea lie so very low, that large parts of them have been many times

Soil, climate, and face of the country.

overflowed by the eruptions of the sea, notwithstanding the strong banks, which the inhabitants keep up at a great expence, almost all along the coast of Groningen, Friseland, North Holland, Zealand, &c. These banks and dykes are commonly seventeen ells thick, and yet have not been found sufficient to resist the violence of the sea and land floods. They may, however, be reckoned among their curiosities, with some Roman paved highways still entire. But their greatest curiosities are their manufactures of lawn, cambric, lace, and tapestry, in which they excel all the world.

Commercial concerns of the Netherlands.

The Netherlands were once the center of the woollen manufactures, which we have now the satisfaction to call the English manufactures, but originally derived from the Flemings, whose country was thereby immensely populous and enriched. The materials for these manufactures, particularly the wool and the fullers-earth, they had from England. The English did not see their error till about the year 1450, when they began to think that these manufactures might as well be carried on in England as in Flanders, and their own people employed in this prodigious scene of traffic, to the enriching of themselves rather than their neighbours. On these motives they wisely put a stop to the exportation of wool, and the clothing was gradually encouraged in England, by the means of manufacturers obtained from the Netherlands, to instruct our people. The Flemings, being thus deprived of their fund of wool, were obliged to turn their hands to other things; which brought them to the making of lace and linen, to silk-weaving, and to other business of various kinds; so that the manufactures carried on in these provinces at present, are, 1. Lace, known by the name of bone-lace, of which the finest and best of the kind in Europe is said to be made at Brussels. 2. Fine thread. 3. Linen, consisting chiefly of cambrics and lawns. 4. Woollen, which includes the tapestry made at Aras and the adjacent country. 5. Silk, of which at present they make not only sufficient for their own use, but for exportation. This domestic trade necessarily creates a great foreign one, where the situation will admit of it; and so considerable are the exports of these manufactures, that very good judges have estimated them at no less, in fine thread, bone-lace, and linen, including their lawns and cambrics, than to the value of two millions sterling a-year.

In

In regard to industry, the Netherlands are an example to the whole world, Nothing can live where they starve, and nothing is idle among them that can sustain any degree of labour. The universal navigation of the rivers and canals passing through innumerable cities and populous towns, implies, that there must be a great inland traffic; and this, indeed, in proportion to the extent of territory, is a prodigious business. The trade of the French and Dutch Netherlands is much the same with that of the Austrian; and, in regard to the Dutch particularly, it may be said, that there is not a manufacture in Europe but is managed to advantage among them, nor a place in the world but they visit with their fleets. They have also some advantages in their traffic, which the rest of the world cannot rival them in, particularly in the sale of the fine spices, which they have monopolized these hundred years, and in the herring and whale fisheries, by which they acquire immense wealth.

The great trade of Holland arose chiefly from the destruction of Antwerp, which, when the civil wars in the Netherlands broke out, was, and had long been the center of traffic in Europe. The troubles in France, the wars in Germany, and the religious persecutions set on foot in other parts of Europe, continued to fill the United Provinces with people, merely because here they might enjoy their consciences, and the fruits of their industry, in peace. Those who resorted thither were such as had wherewithal to live upon, or were acquainted with some manufacture or mystery, by which a living might be obtained. Both were welcome, and both sorts of people were very soon at their ease; new manufactures were every day set on foot, and trades too big even for a wealthy purse were managed with facility, and to great advantage, by joint stocks; the fisheries were annually improved; new branches of commerce were continually opened; and, in the compass of twenty years, their villages swelled into fair towns, and those that were good towns before, rose into rich cities. At first, the inhabitants of those provinces carried on a large trade to Portugal, from whence they received great quantities of Indian goods; but when Philip II. became master of Portugal, he put an end to that trade, which, instead of proving a misfortune, was, in reality, of high advantage to the Dutch, by forcing them to attempt opening a trade to the East Indies, which, in the compass of a few years, they did with success beyond their hopes; and this commerce being managed by a

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company with great prudence, frugality, and industry, soon produced prodigious advantages. This encouraged them to set up a West India company, and that too became not less flourishing in a very short space of time. The subjects of the state likewise, by the recommendation, and under the protection of Henry IV. of France, obtained leave to trade in all the ports within the dominions of the grand signior; so that their commerce in the Levant became also very considerable. Taking, therefore, their fisheries, manufactures, and foreign trade together, we may easily account for the growth of their naval power, the increase of their wealth, and the possibility of their sustaining that infinite variety of taxes, customs, and excises, which were necessary to support so long and so expensive a war, as that by which their liberties were established and secured.

We ought likewise to observe, that the situation of affairs in Europe through this whole period, was remarkably favourable to the growth of this new republic. The overgrown power of Spain was equally dreadful and dangerous to most of the potentates in Europe, which induced them openly or secretly to give all the assistance possible to the inhabitants of these provinces upon their revolt; and the intestine disturbances in several countries, but more especially in Germany and France, prevented their meeting with any rivals; and though it be true that England began at that time to extend her commerce, and increase her naval power, yet this was so far from being any detriment, that it was in reality of very great service to the Dutch, with whom they acted conjointly in warlike expeditions, and from whom, by the temptation of high wages, they drew numbers of experienced pilots, and able seamen, who were extremely useful to them in their early voyages both to the East and West Indies. The quarrel between England and the Hanse Towns turned also very much to their advantage; and in short, before any spirit of envy and emulation arose, the republic was not only beyond the reach of danger, but infinitely superior in every respect to any that could through envy aim at lessening her grandeur, the progress of her prosperity being not barely quicker than either expectation or experience could suggest, but beyond any thing which either ancient or modern history records, and which by posterity will be very hardly believed.

William of Nassau, prince of Orange, surnamed the Great, was the first stadtholder, and may be properly called

called the founder of the Dutch republic, by engaging the provinces of Gueldres, Holland, Zealand, Friseland, and Utrecht, to associate for their mutual safety in 1579. He spent his life in the study of war and politics, in which he was a great proficient, and not less distinguished for his private virtues. At length he was assassinated, in consequence of the resentment of the Spaniards, and sealed the generous actions of his life with his blood. His son Maurice, the second stadtholder, adhering to the virtuous principles of his father, supported the independency of the republic. Henry Frederic, the next brother, succeeding to the stadtholdership, distinguished himself as a warrior and a patriot. The fourth stadtholder was William II. who married the eldest daughter of our king Charles I. This prince dying at the age of twenty-four, left a posthumous son, who was our William III. In his infancy the dignity of stadtholdership was annulled; but the terror of French armies obliged the states to recur to that expedient to which they owed their very being, as a republic. King William fought their battles, and saved them. After his decease, though the dignity of stadtholder was not abolished, it was suffered to expire; nor did the states revive it till the sixth and late stadtholder, William Charles Henry Frizo, a collateral branch of the illustrious house of Orange, who, by the salutary mediation of a strong party of his friends, and the spirit of a mob, when a French army was already at their doors, had this dignity conferred on him in 1745. The stadtholdership, which is now made hereditary in the house of Orange, was, from its original nature, elective; but the high and indelible obligations which the Dutch owe to William the Great, and the renowned patriotism and fidelity of the illustrious house of Orange, through every generation, have ever thrown the choice on this family as a kind of necessary consequence. The present hereditary stadtholder is William V. prince of Orange and Nassau, born March the 8th, 1748; he is son of the late stadtholder, by the princess Anne, eldest daughter of our king George II. The authority of the stadtholder is very confined, unless when he appears at the head of an army, and then, perhaps, he is not only an object of jealousy, but his power is too much circumscribed. The stadtholder sometimes signs public treaties in conjunction with the states, but such treaties do not derive from hence the greater weight or authenticity; for though he is supposed to represent the dignity of the republic, yet, whilst the

Stadtholdership and government of Holland.

states possess the sovereignty, he cannot be considered but as a subject. He has, indeed, the power to pardon condemned malefactors; but he has not even a seat or vote in the assemblies of the states. There are certain prerogatives annexed to the office, which vary in the different provinces, and are alterable by the power from whence they are derived, that is, by the states-general. The appointment of the stadtholdership from the states is one hundred thousand gilders, or nine thousand five hundred pounds sterling; but the prince's paternal inheritance is far more considerable.

The states-general consist of deputies from every province, and are usually about thirty in number; some provinces send two, others more; but every province has no more than one voice; and whatever resolution the states-general take, must be confirmed by every province, and by every city and republic in that province, before it has the force of a law. The deputies of eighteen cities, and one representative of the nobility, constitute the states of the province of Holland; Amsterdam, and every one of those eighteen cities, are separate and independent republics. In Amsterdam the legislative power is lodged in thirty-six senators, who continue members of the senate for life, and when one dies, his place is filled up by the survivors; the senate also elect the deputies to represent the cities in the province of Holland. There is a council of state, consisting of deputies from the several provinces; to which Holland sends three, Guelderland, Zealand, and Utrecht two a-piece; and the provinces of Friseland and Groningen, each of them one. In this council they do not vote by provinces, as in the states-general, but by personal voices; and every deputy presides by turns, and the stadtholder has a decisive voice in this council, where the votes happen to be equal. This council calculates what taxes or forces will be necessary for the current year, and prepares other matters for the determination of the states-general. In an assembly of the states of a particular province, one dissenting voice prevents their coming to any resolution.

The Texel and the Maese are the two chief ports of the country, in which the head places of trade are Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

The city of Amsterdam has infinitely the superior part; here all the fleets of ships arrive, as, the herring-fleet, the Greenland, the East country, the Turkey, and the East India fleets, with the fleet of men of war, or the national

signal fleet. Among these, particular ships belong to the chambers of Rotterdam and Zealand, and to the merchants there; but the grand arsenal, both for war and trade, is at Amsterdam, the ships, stores, furniture of the men of war, and East India ships, being all laid up there; and, indeed, Amsterdam seems to be a general mart for navigation, more ships for sale being built in it than in any place in the world; and not only ships, but fleets may be bought, if there is an occasion, together with naval stores of all kinds, ammunition, and arms, having a sufficiency for all the nations of Europe.

As the navigation is managed here, so is the merchandise they bring. Here the India-house and warehouses are kept, and the goods sold; here are the admiralty-offices, and the building-yards and docks, not for their own shipping only, but for all nations that chuse to employ them; here is the bank, the only one in the country; the exchange, the greatest in Europe, that of London only excepted. In short, there is not a city in the world so rich, so populous, or that carries on so great a trade in so narrow a compass of ground. It is frequently surrounded with water, that threaten to swallow it up, and yet seldom or ever receives any considerable damage; and the number of ships and vessels of all sorts, which are always lying before it, is so great, that it is thought, should any general inundation of the sea drive them to that dreadful necessity, all the people in the city might at once embark, and be saved from drowning.

The city lies almost in the form of a crescent. The port is of difficult access, it being scarce possible for a loaded ship, or man of war, to enter the harbour; and, indeed, the Zuyder Sea is so shallow, and full of sands, that scarce any but their own flat-bottomed vessels can cross it; but then this is their great security against foreign enemies, whose men of war scarce ever venture to pursue them beyond the Texel, and other entrances into this sea. The foundations are laid upon great piles of timber drove into the morasses on which the town stands, at a prodigious expence; the stadthouse alone has upwards of thirteen thousand piles of wood to bear up the foundation. The first mention of this town in history is about the year 1300, when it was a poor fishing town. In 1585, it appears to have been the chief town of trade in those provinces, when they began to fortify it; and great additions were made to the fortifications in 1672, when Lewis XIV. invaded the country. The houses are built with

with brick or stone; the streets spacious and well paved, and through most of them run canals, planted with trees. The town is computed to be half as big as London, including the fortifications, and in it are people of almost every nation, and every religion in Europe, who are all tolerated in their respective persuasions, but none admitted to any share in the government but the Calvinists.

Rotterdam is a flourishing city, but not to be compared with Amsterdam, to which it is as Bristol is to London, though rather with a larger share in the proportion. It is populous, and much more conveniently situated for trade than Amsterdam, the canals which run through it bringing ships up to the doors; and the Maese is much sooner free from ice than the Wye at Amsterdam; on which account the British merchants resort to this port more than to the other. There are several other towns of trade and note in the United Provinces; but we need only mention.

The Hague, which is situated in the province of Holland, two miles east of the sea. It is encompassed with fine meadows and groves, but no walls, and therefore esteemed a village, but one of the largest and most elegant in Europe, and enjoys all the privileges of a city of Holland, except that of sending representatives to the states. But here the states of the province of Holland, and the states-general assemble, as well as the council of state, and their supreme courts of justice; and here foreign ministers are admitted to audience, and all public affairs transacted; and here is a palace, in which there are apartments for the princes of Orange when stadtholders; the chambers of the states-general, and provincial, and of the council of state. On the west of the palace is a large area, surrounded by good houses, and planted with fine walks of trees, which makes it sometimes to be compared to St. James's park; and here every city of the United Provinces has a house for their respective deputies. On the north side of the Hague is a walk planted with lime-trees, two miles long, extending to the village of Scheveling, by the sea-side.

*Naval
Strength of
the Dutch.*

As to the naval strength of the Dutch, which we sometimes hear much boasted of, it may be said, that in this particular at present they are forty years behind the English. Whether this wondrous change is an effect of unavoidable calamities, or of voluntary national defection from their ancient maxims of government, is not so easy to judge, though the latter cause may seem the more probable. It is now much above an hundred years since the

Dutch

Dutch were able to vie with England; and, towards the close of the last century, even in time of peace, they thought it their interest to employ between thirty-five and forty ships of war. Upon an emergency, they were able to send an hundred sail to sea; it was computed, that the support of thirty capital ships then cost them annually only six millions of guilders. But if this power is departed from, which seems to be the case, and Great Britain left to take care of herself, the larger portion of commerce must fall to her share, in order to the support of a greater naval force. This consideration seems to put us in mind of the present situation of Great Britain, and the necessity of application to our marine; not only as a counterbalance to the accumulating strength of France and Spain, but as an easy and natural expedient to compensate for the insufficiency of the Dutch.

Travellers, either in pursuit of learning or pleasure, seldom consider this country in the same light as Italy, or France, and consequently there is not much said of it. Sir William Temple's general idea of the Dutch in his time is contained in these words: "Holland is a country where the earth is better than the air, and profit more in request than honour; where there is more sense than wit, more good-nature than good-humour, and more wealth than pleasure; where a man would chuse rather to travel than to live; shall find more things to observe than desire; and more persons to esteem than to love." As a kind of contrast to what is remarked by this polite author, a burlesque historian says, "In Holland the four elements are good for nothing; it is a country where they worship a golden idol, seated on a throne of cheese, and crowned with tobacco; where art surpasses nature, and industry alone makes the state flourish; where rusticity of speech is preferred to the persuasive softness of gentle words, and a coarseness of manners makes a shew of liberty; where the wives are mistresses, and the husbands servants; where the houses, by dint of frequent washings, appear as cabinets; and an excess of cleanliness is inconvenient; in a word, where butter and cheese is the harvest and reward of the people's toil."

*Genius,
manners,
&c. of the
Dutch.*

The Dutch are most certainly devoted to commerce, and, though in the midst of Europe, detached as it were from other nations, they are bred up in an abhorrence of regal power, and consequently have a distaste of the manners of the polite nations who are subject to this form of government. Under these circumstances they can hardly
be

be supposed to raise many men of genius, or to cultivate the more refined arts of contemplative life and liberal science. Hence the ease, the gentleness, the sweetness of manners, which we find in polite nations, are seldom possessed, even amongst the higher ranks of the people in Holland, though we often meet with an excess of complaisance; nor is this at all surprising, if we consider, that men devoted to arts of gain from their earliest life can with difficulty be formed to a true taste of society. The amusement in which the Dutch have the greatest pretence to delicacy, is, that of gardening, for which some of them contract so great a passion, that there is a law for restraining the price of tulip-roots. They are so well convinced that much diversion not only creates expence, but calls off the mind from business and domestic duties, that in Amsterdam no public shews are permitted within the walls. After seven in the evening every person that passes the gates pays one one stiver, and a coach five stivers; so that diversions are taxed with this impost. It is not, however, very considerable, for the people have not a great passion for theatrical entertainments. In the winter-time skating is their greatest amusement. Their retired manner of living is often the occasion that the men when they affect a chearful, polite, and delicate turn of manners, are awkward; and when gay, wicked; the same remark holds with the women also, when they depart from a reserved habit of life. Their notions of religion, which must ever influence the manners of a people, are not very liberal; and though the practice of it is strictly enjoined as a duty, it does not appear to be rendered delightful.

It is not difficult to conceive, that constant application to business and indefatigable industry not diverted by any of the warmer passions, nor by the habit or temptation of pleasure, should produce that degree of wealth, power, and influence, at which the Dutch once arrived, and of which, with respect to individuals, they may yet boast. But there is nothing which lowers the reputation of the Dutch, or reflects greater dishonour on them than their cruelty. This does not so much arise from fiery particles in their blood, or warm passions, as the love of money; and they seem to have followed the example of their old masters, by taking the same steps to support themselves in the East as the others did in the West Indies. In this Great Britain is distinguished, no part of her greatness being owing to unwarrantable slaughter.

SECT,

S E C T. VIII.

Of Germany.

GERMANY ought, with good reason, to challenge a special attention from the curious, as being the seat of a great people, and of many sovereignties of different denominations, and under various forms of government; a country of large extent, and the scene of many and great actions; a country, whose affairs and transactions are interwoven with those of every nation in Europe, of which it may be termed both the head and center; a country, whose princes are every day forming alliances of marriage, which pave a way for them to the principal thrones of Europe, several of which, as those of Great Britain, Poland lately, Sweden, and Prussia, we see filled at this day by some of its princes; a country, which, for the good sense, considerable learning, and the many useful and ingenious inventions of the natives, highly deserves of all her neighbours; to all this it may added, that it is our original country; that from thence came our ancestors, whose language, customs, laws, we, in a good measure, still retain, together with their form of government, the chief glory and happiness of the British isles. Upon these accounts, no Englishman can call this country foreign, nor its natives foreigners to him. Indeed, most nations in Europe have been either peopled from hence, or subdued by its armies; as happened to this island by the Saxons; to Gaul, by the Franks; to Italy, Spain, and Afric, by the Goths and Vandals; to those glorious people almost all Europe, and part of Asia and Africa, owed their freedom from those chains wherewith the Roman power had so long bound them; and, wherever any of their colonies settled, they established a just and mild government on the ruins of tyranny.

Germany, as set out by Ptolemy, and other ancient writers, extended northward as far as the ocean, whereby Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, were included; and southward it was bounded by the Danube; so that Austria, Bavaria, &c. now reckoned part of it, were then excluded, as well as Alsace, part of the Palatinate, and the spiritual electorates; the Rhine being reckoned the western bounds. The Germans afterwards possessed the latter, with the adjacent countries, and being conquered by the Romans,

Germany, in what respects deserves of our attention.

Extent, boundaries, and situation of Germany.

Romans, were then named *Germania Prima* and *Secunda*. Germany, as it is at present bounded by France and the Netherlands on the west, Poland and Hungary on the east, Denmark and the Baltic sea on the north, and Switzerland with the dominions of the state of Venice and the Alps on the south, is situated between 45 deg. 12 min. and 55 deg. of latitude, and between 6 deg. and 19 deg. 45 min. of longitude; extending from north to south, that is, from Stralsund, in Pomerania, to the frontiers of Carniola and Istria, one hundred and fifty German leagues, or six hundred English miles; and in breadth, from the town of Spa, in the west, to the confines of Poland, in the east, about five hundred English miles.

Soil, climate, produce, &c.

The soil is exceeding fruitful, especially on the banks of the Rhine and the Danube, where also the air is very temperate; but in the northern parts it is cold, and the ground less fruitful. In general, this country and Poland are so like to Great Britain, both in climate and soil, that no countries in Europe agree better with the English constitutions. Besides great plenty of corn, cattle, sheep, wool, cloth, horses, &c. the earth also affords mines of divers sorts of metals and minerals, as iron, bitumen, nitre, ocre, copper, tin, lead, and even silver in some parts; alum, vitrol, quicksilver, salt, coal, terra sigillata, diamonds, agates, crystals, jaspers of several colours, fine alabaster, turquoise-stones, rubies, &c. In general the surface is even, and, though in some parts hilly, is nowhere mountainous, except towards the south, and south-west, where the Alps, and a few mountains in Alsace, serve as boundaries and bulwarks against Italy and France. The forest and wastes yield plenty of wood for fuel and building, and abound with great variety of wild-fowl, and all sorts of good venison; they also feed great numbers of hogs; and some of them, as the forest of Ardenne, feed good mutton. The orchards are full of our common fruit-trees; and in the southern provinces there is plenty of the more delicate sort, as peaches, apricots, figs, olives, grapes, &c. in good perfection. There are rich wines, of which the Rhenish and Moselle, in particular, are exported in great quantities to foreign nations; and are not only equal, but preferable to some of the wines in Italy. The very mountains of the Alps, on the German side, are in many places, cultivated to the top, and the vallies abound with pastures and vines. In short, no country, perhaps, in the world abounds with such variety of every thing conducive to the comfort of life; and,

though others may exceed it in the goodness of some particular articles, yet even of these they have a sufficiency, and might still have them in greater perfection, were the inhabitants industrious; or, rather, did the landed men give encouragement to husbandry and industry.

No country in Europe, if in the whole world, has so many great and noble rivers as Germany. The chief are the Danube, the Rhine, the Elbe, the Oder, the Weser, the Mein, and the Inn. The whole course of the Danube, from its fountain in Swabia on the borders of Alsace, to the Black Sea, is about twenty-seven degrees; which, reckoning sixty miles to a degree, is one thousand six hundred and twenty miles, without including its turnings and windings, which must make it at least one third more, so that it may well be affirmed to be longer than the Nile in Egypt, which in many particulars it resembles.

As to the trade of Germany, that of the cities on the Rhine and the Moselle consists chiefly of wood, corn, wine, and oil; but the traffic of many of them has failed since the settlement of the Dutch republic. The chief commodities we have from Germany are linen, diaper, and damask, of which many thousand ells are constantly imported by the way of Hamburgh. We have likewise large quantities of their mineral waters, and their Rhenish wine, which last is reckoned the staple of Germany. In return, they have from us some lead and brass, much pewter; some of our woollen manufactures, as flannel, stuffs, &c. to the value of about one hundred thousand pounds a year, all by the way of Hamburg. They have also from us considerable quantities of buttons, buckles, scissars, and such trinkets, with which the towns of Nuremberg and Augsburgh formerly supplied not only Germany, but England, and most other countries. The same may be said of watches, which the Germans, so famous for clock-work, where at first wholly in possession of; but now they prefer English watches to their own. Both the inland and foreign commerce of the country might be very much improved, were the inhabitants duly encouraged, or more attentive to their particular interest. By the Rhine, the Elbe, and the Weser, it has a communication with the ocean; by the Oder, and the city of Lubbeck, it may at least share, if not engross, the Baltic trade; by the Moselle and the Meuse, it is capable of trafficking to France; by the Danube, which falls into the Euxine Sea, it might send goods into the heart of Turkey,

Trade of Germany.
and

and supply both the European and Asiatic provinces of that empire; and, by means of the Adriatic gulf, it might have part of the trade of the Mediterranean and the Levant.

*Germany,
how peo-
pled.*

Whether Germany was peopled, as Cluverius says, in the 136th year after the flood, by Ascenas, the grandchild of Japhet; or whether Tuisco, who, some say, was the son of that Ascenas, and others the son of Noah, was the conductor of the first colony hither, as Vestegan affirms, is uncertain; however that be, Germany was peopled very early. The ancient Germans had two deities, called Tuto, or Tuisco, and Mannus his son, under which names, by their songs and festivals, they honoured God, the maker of the world, and Adam the propagator of mankind; and from the name of the former of these two deities, Germany was called the Teutsche nation, which by the change of T for D, is now made Duytsche, and the country Duytschland.

*Temper,
genius, &c.
of the Ger-
mans.*

The temper of the inhabitants of Germany was always reputed martial; but it is observable, that though they are generally of large bodies, much flesh, and strong sinews, they want spirit to actuate their large bulk, and heat to concoct their phlegmatic humour, and, therefore, are better at guarding a post than gaining a pass. It is true, that they formerly opposed the Romans for two hundred and ten years, and not long since the Turks; having fought many battles, and acquired great honour by the glorious victories they obtained, not only over those infidels, but the French, Italians, Spaniards, and others. They are generally good-natured, free from malice and subtlety, much addicted to both drunkenness and gluttony, but not over much to venery. The peasants are laborious, sincere, honest, and hospitable; as are likewise the merchants and tradesmen, who are also very complaisant. The nobility are men of great honour, and commonly scholars. All the sons of noblemen inherit their father's title, which exceedingly increases the number of their nobility; and the more because the German ladies are generally good breeders; and by that means the estates of the princes are so divided, for the sake of the younger children, that the principalities and sovereign lordships have increased to a great number. All the nobility scorn marriage with a commoner; wherefore the younger brothers are often obliged to take to arms, or enter into orders, whereby they are enabled to keep up the grandeur of the family, especially by the latter, because the ecclesiastical preferments

ments here are both numerous and rich. The women are of good complexions, corpulent, and more obsequious to their husbands than our women, many not sitting at table with them, and none having the upper place; they are well educated and fond of music, but more addicted to gaming than becomes their sex; but they are observed not to be very talkative. The genius of the Germans has appeared in the invention and improvement of many mechanical arts, especially clock-work. They also claim the invention of the art of printing, and of guns; and to these we may add their improvement of the art of chemistry.

The greatest monarchy that has been in Germany was that of Charles the Great, otherwise called Charlemagne, king of France: for he was not only lord of the parts upon the Lower Rhine, and the Main, but by his arms subdued Saxony and Bavaria; and acquiring in the year 800, the honour of emperor of the Romans, resided with it here, and Germany has ever since been called the sacred Roman empire; which dignity, though but a shadow of the ancient Roman, it has ever since borne. But for the sake of greater accuracy, it will be necessary to observe, that under the race of Charlemagne, the founder or restorer of this new empire of the West, the constitution or government was hereditary and absolute, and the title of emperor and empire rather regarded Rome and Italy than France and Germany. After the death of Charlemagne, and his successor Lewis le Debonnaire, their great states were parcelled out and divided. The titles of emperor and of Italy were conferred in 840, on Lothaire, the eldest son of Lewis, and he was succeeded by his eldest son Lewis II. in 855. The others had different states: Lothaire got the kingdom of Lorrain, to which he gave his name, Lotharingia. Charles III. son of Lewis II. was king of Provence in 875. Charles le Chauve, or the Bald, the fourth son of Lewis le Debonnaire, who was already king of France, was declared emperor, as the nearest in blood, being uncle of Lewis II. In 877, Charles had for successor his son Lewis le Begue or *the Stammerer*, who died in 879. The imperial crown passed afterwards to Charles le Gros, or *the Fat*, from the year 880 to the end of 887, when that prince fell into so strange a weakness of mind, that the grandees of Germany acknowledged for their sovereign Arnoul, natural son of Carloman, who was eldest son of Lewis I. king of Germany. The title of emperor then began to make itself known in Germany;

History of the constitution of the German empire.

for they had there kings of Italy, as Berenger, Guy, Lambert, and Lewis III. but none of them were generally received as emperor. Towards the end of the month of March, in the year 896, Arnoul received the imperial crown at Rome, and his son Lewis succeeded him both in quality of king of Germany and emperor. With this prince, who died in January, 912, ended in Germany the posterity in the male line of Chalemagne, which was here given an account of, chiefly with the design to shew, that the empire was then successive, and that it passed to the nearest in blood from the last emperor. His will had the force of law; yet they were careful to consult men that were wise, prudent, and intelligent in business; which still makes us admire the laws that remain to us under the title of Capitularies.

Conrad, count of Franconia, was elected king of Germany in 912, without assuming the quality of emperor, which was disputed till the year 964, as well as the sovereignty of Italy, by five different princes, namely, Berenger I. Rodolph, Hugh I. Lothaire, and Berenger II.

Henry, duke of Saxony, surnamed the Fowler, possessed himself notwithstanding of the throne of Germany, but without the quality of emperor, which he never assumed in any of his letters patent or diplomas; he is qualified in them by the title of king of Germany, and sometimes by that of eastern France; and he is even styled *Advocatus Romanorum*, signifying *protector and defender of the Romans*. Henry dying the 2d of July, 936, Otho I. his eldest son, was chosen king in his place: but he was not crowned emperor till the beginning of the year 962. From this time forth the Germans were always possessed of the title and the imperial crown.

To begin by the constitution or state of the empire, such as it has been since Otho I. it is proper to observe that the election of the emperor was performed by all the grandees of Germany. These grandees were no other than the chief officers of the last emperors, and the governors of provinces, who acted in Germany as the governors of provinces had done in France, appropriating their governments to themselves and their posterity; but always acknowledging either the kind of Germany, or emperor, lord paramount, and making no difficulty to call themselves his first vassals.

The emperor Otho I. held the imperial sceptre with dignity, which procured for him the surname of Great; he added to the title of Cæsar that of *Romanorum imperator*

rator Augustus, as Frederic Barbarossa, elected in 1152, had himself styled *Semper Augustus*. After Otho the Great, the empire languished during some time; his son Otho II. lived despised, and his grandson Otho III. converted the love of justice into cruelty. There was a revolution in 1105; and after the death of Henry IV. which happened the year following, a constitution was made, whereby it was regulated, that the children of kings, though worthy and capable of governing, were not for the future to pretend to the empire by right of succession, but only by the way of a free and voluntary election; these are the terms the constitution is conceived in, and the succession began then to be insensibly abolished.

Though the grandees, consisting of the bishops, the prime nobility, or the great vassals, had the principal authority in the election of the emperor; yet the people, that is, the great cities, had also some share therein, not so much by their vote as approbation, which lasted till the middle of the thirteenth century. Then the principal princes, who about this time assumed to themselves the title of electors, appropriated to themselves also the election of the head of the empire.

According to the *Bulla Aurea*, or *Golden Bull*, this election must be at Francfort on the Main; but there have been emperors elected at Ratisbon. The emperor Joseph was elected king of the Romans in 1690, at Augsberg; because the empire was then at war with France, and the armies were too near Francfort to hazard the solemnizing thereof so important and august a ceremony.

The emperor being declared chief, there must be a corporation or body of states at the head of which he is to be. This body is divided into three classes or colleges, viz. that of the electors, that of the princes of the empire, and lastly, the college of the imperial cities. This distinction was established at the diet of Francfort in 1580.

The elector of Mentz is the director of the electoral college, which consists of nine electors. At what time, or by what means these princes first obtained the electoral power, is not certainly known, though it is very probable, as above hinted, they insensibly assume it themselves. The common opinion is, that the emperor Otho III. and pope Gregory V. instituted them; but this is disputed, and many learned men are of opinion, that though it be true, that from the time of Otho, the empire

pire was elective, yet the elections were not made by these princes only, but by the great officers of the empire in general; of whom, these being the chief, and most considerable by their estates, took the advantage to overtop the rest, and assume that power wholly to themselves. This is dated from the time of Frederic II. and Conrad IV. at the death of the last of which, several elections were made at the same time, and the affairs of Germany put thereby into great disorders. At length this kind of usurpation received a fixed and permanent state, having been passed into a law by the emperor Charles IV. who made the famous golden bull, which contains the whole form of the election and power of the electors, and answers to our Magna Charta. The number of these electors was then but seven, to whom an eighth was added in the last age on the following occasion: Frederick V. count Palatine, falling into difference with the emperor, and accepting of the crown of Bohemia, in opposition to the pretensions of Ferdinand II. was by him proscribed; and being defeated at the battle of Prague, in the year 1620, was deprived of his country and honours, which the emperor bestowed upon the duke of Bavaria; but great contests and wars ensuing thereupon, it was at last agreed in the Westphalian treaty of 1648, that the count palatine should be restored to his electoral dignity; but because the duke of Bavaria could not be brought to part with his, an eighth electorate was erected for him; and the Lower Palatinate, part of his country, being restored, he has since had the title of elector palatine of the Rhine, and the eighth seat in the electoral college.

Towards the end of the last century, the emperor Leopold created a ninth electorate, in favour of the house of Brunswick Hanover, which was greatly attached to him. This house is undoubtedly one of the most ancient and illustrious of the empire of Germany; and Leopold, to acknowledge by this dignity the affection of the branch of Hanover, created, in favour of the duke Ernestus Augustus, a ninth electorate, on the 19th of December, 1692. This was notwithstanding with the extra-collegial consent of the electors of Mentz, Bavaria, Saxony, and Brandenburg; but as this affair had neither been discussed nor concluded collegially by the electors, the new elector became involved in many difficulties, even after the electoral investiture which his imperial majesty had conferred on him at Vienna. These difficulties were not

got over till the house of Austria and the friends of that of Hanover had found means to obtain the collegial consent of the electors of Triers, Cologne, and Palatine. Thus, after a long opposition, they at last agreed that the duke of Hanover should enjoy the title of elector; and though they reserved to themselves the definitive discussion of the conditions whereby the new elector was to be put into the total possession and exercise of the title, all was terminated to the advantage of the house of Hanover. But it will not be amiss to have a competent idea of what concerns every elector in particular.

In the decline of the house of Charlemagne, the great officers of those emperors had governments, which they made successive and hereditary in their posterity: the same was done by the French lords, who, from being only beneficiary dukes or counts of the great fiefs of the crown, made them their property. The ecclesiastical princes did not attempt any of the like usurpations; their great demesnes were from the liberality of Charlemagne, his successors, and even from the first kings of Germany, and the ancient German emperors.

The three ecclesiastical electors are styled arch-chancellors, which is a dignity of the state, and not considered as domestic. The elector of Mentz is arch-chancellor of the empire for Germany. This dignity is purely elective, and depends upon the chapter composed of twenty-four canons, called capitularies, as forming particularly the high chapter. The other canons, to the amount of eighteen, are called domiciliaries; and as admitted, having produced proofs of sixteen descents, they are aggregated in their turn to the number of the capitularies. The revenue and extent of the states of this prince are but inconsiderable. He usually nominates a vice-chancellor, who resides at Vienna, to take care of the affairs of the Germanic body, which are laid before the imperial court. The city of Mentz, capital of this electorate, was formerly an imperial city; but was deprived of this advantage in punishment for the assassination of Arnoul of Zellenoven, its archbishop, which was committed by the burghers of that city in 1160. Henry II. of Wimb-
*Elector of
Mentz.*

the archives and matricula of the empire, the inspector of the aulic council and imperial chamber, and arbiter of the greater part of the public affairs of the empire. It is to him, as prime minister, that foreign princes apply concerning any proposals to be made by them to the Germanic body; and to him also the princes of the empire bring their complaints. His usual residence is at Aschaffenburg on the Main, above Frankfort, but rarely at Mentz. He sits on the emperor's right hand in the diet, and had formerly the right of crowning the king of Bohemia.

*Electors of
Triers.*

The elector of Triers is arch-chancellor of the empire for Gaul. The pretensions of the emperors formerly to the kingdom of Arles gave room to the creation of this office; but it is now without any exercise annexed to it. This elector, the second of the electoral college, occupies the most ancient see in all Germany. The chapter of Triers observes the same customs as that of Mentz. In the assemblies or diet of the empire, the elector of Triers is the first that gives his opinion or vote; and he is seated in the middle opposite the emperor. All the fiefs arising from his archbishoprick revert to him, in case of the death of the feudatories without male issue. Besides Triers, he has also Coblenz and Hermanstein; the first, on the western bank of the Rhine, where the Moselle empties itself into that great river; and the second, opposite the first, on the eastern bank of the same river. These two places serve for the usual residence of the elector, who in the wars the emperor sometimes has with France, endeavours, as much as possible, to preserve a neutrality. Baudouin, count of Luxemburg, and brother to the emperor Henry VII. appears to be the first of the archbishops of Triers, who was made an elector of the empire. He was appointed to that see in 1308, and died in January 1354.

*Electors of
Cologne.*

The archbishop of Cologne, though the third and last of the ecclesiastical electors, is notwithstanding, one of the most powerful among them. He bears the title of elector of Cologne, an imperial city, situated on the Rhine, but independent of its archbishop. His usual residence is at Bonn, a place of some strength, a few leagues above Cologne, and on the same river. His chapter, composed of princes and counts, none of the degree of barons or gentlemen being received into it, consists of sixty canons, whereof the twenty-four first are capitularies, and are alone intitled to a vote for the election of their archbishop.

This

This elector is arch-chancellor of the empire for the states of Italy; but, as the empire now possesses nothing on that continent, his office of arch-chancellor is but titular, as that of Triers. The ecclesiastical princes of the house of Bavaria have been for some time in possession of this electorate, to which are often annexed several other bishopricks of consequence, as those of Osnabrug, Hildesheim, Munster, Paderborn; because those prelacies being much sought after by Protestant princes, the Catholics find themselves obliged to nominate to them a prince of a powerful family, and in a condition of being supported, either by himself or the princes of his name. The elector of Cologne claims the first vote in chusing the king of the Romans, and the prerogative of setting the crown on his head: he sits next the emperor, on his left hand. The first archbishop of this city, honoured with the electoral title, was probable Wabramus, count of Juliers, who died in 1349.

The first of the secular electors is the king of Bohemia. *King of Bohemia.* This kingdom formerly had only the title of duchy, and the first duke, it is said, was Czechus, who lived in the year 325. Others, with more probability make Primiſlaus the first duke in 722; it was he who built the city of Prague, and died in 745. Uladislauſ, who died in 1092, was the first that was acknowledged by the title of king of this state in the year 1086. After many revolutions, this kingdom came into the house of Austria by the marriage of Ferdinand I. brother of Charles V. with the princess Anne, sister of king Lewis, who was slain at the battle of Mohatz, in 1526. By this alliance, the German branch of the house of Austria obtained an electorate; and this kingdom subsists in it to this day. The duchy of Silesia, which made the most considerable and richest part of Bohemia, is now separated from it, and in possession of the king of Prussia, elector of Brandenburg. The county of Lusatia, a fief of Bohemia, belongs almost all of it to the elector of Saxony, except some districts the king of Prussia is possessed of; so that the greatest fief of this kingdom is now confined to the marquisate of Moravia, which the emperor possesses, as heir of the house of Austria. Formerly the king of Bohemia only voted and sat among the electors in the business of chusing an emperor; but in 1708, a decree or imperial constitution was made, whereby this king has a right to

fit and vote in the electoral college. This act of the diet is called Re-admission, and in consequence of it, his ambassador has a right to assist at all the deliberations of the empire. The king of Bohemia also is chief cup-bearer to the emperor, and in public processions walks next to him, or to the king of the Romans.

*Electors of
Saxony.*

The electoral house of Saxony is undoubtedly one of the most ancient and illustrious in Germany, where it has been known even before the tenth century. It was not, however, invested with the electoral duchy of Saxony till the year 1423, in the person of Frederick, surnamed the Warlike, who enjoyed only during five years this great dignity, and died in the month of June, 1428. In 1547, there was a considerable revolution: John Frederick, surnamed the Magnanimous, having declared himself for Luther's opinions, was attacked, defeated, and made prisoner by the emperor Charles V. who put him under the ban of the empire, and divested him, both of the electoral dignity and the duchy of Saxony. Prince Maurice, of Saxony, John Frederick's cousin, was invested with them the same year, and dying without issue in 1553, left his states to the prince Augustus, his brother. It is from the latter the house of Saxony descends, having ever since subsisted with great dignity in the empire, and consideration in Europe. The prevailing religion in this electorate is the Protestant or Lutheran. The elector Frederick Augustus having been elected king of Poland in 1697, embraced the Catholic religion, and his son and successor the late king of Poland, abjured the Protestant communion at Rome in the course of his travels, and declared it publicly in 1717. He was not long survived by his eldest son, Frederick, who died of the small pox, December, 1763. The present elector is Frederick Augustus, born December 23, 1750. This elector has great privileges; besides being, during the vacancy of the imperial throne, one of the vicars of the empire, a dignity we shall speak of hereafter, justice is administered by him in a definitive manner, without an appeal to the emperor's aulic council, or the imperial chamber of Wetzlar. The states he possesses as elector, are Upper Saxony, Misnia, which he holds from his first progenitors, and the Upper and Lower Lusatia, which his ancestors have acquired from the princes of the house of Austria, as kings of Bohemia. The city of Dresden, situate on the Elbe, is the place of his usual residence. The elector of Saxony is styled grand-marshal.

marshal of the empire, and carries the naked sword before the emperor.

The younger branch of the Palatine house, or of Bavaria, called commonly in the empire Guillelmine, has been only in possession of the electorate since the year 1623, after the elector palatine Frederick had accepted in 1619 of the crown of Bohemia. This house is incontestably one of the most ancient in the empire. The abbot du Bos, in the manifesto or public declaration made by him at the beginning of the Spanish war, in favour and under the name of Maximilian Emanuel, goes so far as to say, "that we might find in history, that the house of Bavaria was already one of the most illustrious in Germany, when that of Hapsburg was not yet much celebrated." This illustrious house, a branch of the Palatine, was very well known towards the middle of the eleventh century, when Otho, count of Schyren and Viteffpach, was made count palatine of Bavaria. The Lower Palatinate afterwards came to him. It must not, however, be supposed that Otho of Schyren cannot be traced back to more remote times. The Bavarian historians have set forth the great dignity and eminency of this house in the genealogy they have published of it. We see therein that it has produced kings, as well as emperors. It is from Lewis of Bavaria, raised to the imperial dignity in 1314, and who died in 1347, that the branch of the dukes of Bavaria descends. Though its possession of the electoral dignity is dated from 1623, and the confirmation of it with the Upper Palatine, from the treaty of Westphalia in 1648; it was, notwithstanding, or ought to have been, electoral long before, that illustrious dignity belonging alternately to the Rodolphine branch, the elder, and to the Guillelmine, the second. Such was the convention made at Pavia between the emperor Lewis of Bavaria, and Adolphus son of Rodolphus, and brother of Lewis. But Charles IV. a declared enemy of Lewis of Bavaria, whose competitor he was for some years before, being his successor, deprived by the Golden Bull the branch of Bavaria of the electorate, in order to appropriate it solely to the Palatine branch; and thereby he cut off the alternative. The treaty of Westphalia afterwards confirmed the house of Bavaria in the electorate; and though that dignity was also restored to the Palatine house, a difficulty still subsists, which has not been entirely decided. During the vacancy of the imperial throne, the elector palatine was vicar of the empire in the principalities included

*Elector of
Bavaria.*

included in the rights and privileges of Swabia and Franconia; the elector of Bavaria as surrogated to the rights of Palatine, pretended also to be vicar of the empire; but there has been not long since a sort of an agreement between the two electors, in expectation of a definitive resolution.

Those two branches have produced great men, either in several kings of Sweden, or in some electors of the Rodolphine branch, which was vested with the Palatine electorate; or in the Guillelmine branch, which produced the celebrated Lewis of Bavaria, who supported the imperial dignity with so much courage against all his enemies. We have had within this century, that respectable prince, Maximilian Emanuel. The emperor Leopold, whose son-in-law he was, could not forget that he had expended in the wars of Hungary upwards of thirty millions of German florins, which the elector Ferdinand, his father had amassed by the neutralities he preserved in all the wars of his time. Leopold to detach him from the interest of Lewis XIV. and Philip V. offered him the kingdom of the two Sicilies, but Maximilian's honour made him adhere inviolably to his engagements. Leopold was scarce dead, when his most inveterate enemy the emperor Joseph, put him under the ban of the empire in the aulic council, contrary to the tenor of all the imperial laws. The states-general of Holland, who had a singular esteem for this great prince, gave him the strongest assurances that peace should never be made, till he was entirely reinstated, and this accordingly was effected in 1714. The emperor, Charles VII. was of this house; he was raised to this dignity in 1742. The elector of Bavaria is high-fewer, and in public processions and ceremonies carries the globe before the emperor, and at the election-feast serves the first dish on the new emperor's table.

*Elect^r of
Branden-
burg.*

Notwithstanding the illustrious antiquity of the house of Brandenburg, which is dated from the ninth century, it did not arrive at its present grandeur, but by degrees and a small increase. Besides the electoral dignity that in 1417 it acquired with the marche, or marquissate of Brandenburg, it possesses greater demesnes than any other prince of the empire. These are Prussia, erected into a kingdom in 1701; the duchy of Cleves, the principalities of Magdeburgh, Halberstadt, and Minden, with the counties of Ravensperg, and la Marck, and lately the county of Embden, and the duchy of Silesia, except some
small

small districts. The personal accomplishments of the present king of Prussia, his share in the late wars, his conduct therein, his experience as a general, his wisdom as a legislator, are all too well known in Europe to require here any particular panegyric. Justice is administered in his states, according to the different customs of each province, from whence the parties may appeal to the elector's sovereign council; but there can be no appeal from it, either to the aulic council, or imperial chamber. This prince's states are situate at such a distance from one another, that he is obliged to use great precautions in his alliances and treaties with the several powers. The elector is of the Calvinist persuasion, but there are numbers of Catholics in his states, who are more protected in them than in other Protestant states. The Lutherans also are tolerated by him. The branches of the electoral house of Brandenburg are those of Bareith and Anspach. Berlin is the usual residence of the elector, who, as great-chamberlain, presents water to the emperor, and in public ceremonies carries the Imperial sceptre.

The electoral Palatine house, notwithstanding its re-
establishment in 1648, lost its precedency, being since
classed in the eighth rank. We have already shewn its
consanguinity with the electoral house of Bavaria. All
that now need be said is, that the present elector, one of
the princes of Sultzbach, comes from a branch of the
Palatine house, elder than that of Bavaria. It is well
known, that after Wenceslaus, who was deposed, Robert
count palatine, was placed on the imperial throne in
the year 1400; and that the branch of Deux-Ponts, the
younger of that of Sultzbach, has given three kings and
a queen to Sweden. The elector's country is the Lower
Palatinate; his religion is that of the church of Rome;
but his subjects are for the most part Protestants. He is
styled high-steward of the empire, and carries the crown.

*Elector
Palatine.*

We have already shewn the difficulties the duke of
Hanover met with, in becoming peaceable possessor of
the electoral dignity, which was justly due to him, if we
consider the antiquity of his illustrious house. If the
emperor Leopold shewed his gratitude to the dukes of
Hanover, by creating them electors, it may be also said
that they have not failed in making a suitable return
to the house of Austria, whose pretensions, before the
war, which happened after the death of the emperor
Charles VI. they constantly supported and defended as
their own.

*Elector of
Hanover.*

This

This house, which retired from Italy into Germany in the tenth century, comes from the ancient house of Este; it soon distinguished itself in the empire, where it possessed the duchy of Saxony, and even the imperial throne, in the year 1208, in the person of Otho IV. The branch of Brunswick-Hanover, which is the younger, has been more fortunate than the elder branch, that of Brunswick-Wolfenbutel, which, notwithstanding, is at the head of the princes of the empire. In 1714, George I. the second elector of Hanover, ascended the throne of England, and greatly augmented his German dominions by the purchase of several principalities from the king of Denmark, who had conquered them from Charles XII. of Sweden. The elector may thus be now considered as one of the most powerful princes of the empire. He has the title of arch-treasurer, and carries the standard.

*Substitutes
of the
electors.*

When these princes cannot assist themselves in person at the imperial ceremonies, they are replaced by a substitute who represents them: thus, the elector of Mentz nominates himself his vice-chancellor, whom he puts in place and changes at pleasure; but the rest are represented by lieutenants in right of their titles; as the king of Bohemia by the count of Limburg, the elector of Bavaria by the count of Walburg, Saxony by the count of Pappenheim, Brandenburg by the count of Hohenzollern, and the palatine by the count of Sultzendorf.

*Vicars of
the empire.*

The elector of Saxony and the count palatine were formerly the two sole vicars of the empire during an interregnum; but the latter having been put under the imperial ban, and stripped of his electoral dignity, the emperor Ferdinand II. conferred it on the duke of Bavaria in 1623; and in the treaty of Munster, in 1648, it was resolved, "that the electoral dignity, which heretofore had been possessed by the prince palatine, was to remain to the lord Maximilian count palatine, duke of Bavaria, and his children." Hereupon the elector of Bavaria pretended that the vicarship of the empire belonged to him, exclusively of the count palatine. On the other hand, the elector palatine, newly reinstated, maintained that the vicarship did not depend on the electoral dignity, but on that of count palatine of the Rhine, according to the ancient usage, and the Golden Bull, chap. v. wherein it is specified expressly, that the count palatine of the Rhine is vicar of the empire on account of his principality, and the privilege of count palatine. This prince, in virtue of the vicarship, has a power of administering justice, nominating

mirating to ecclesiastical benefices, receiving the revenues of the empire, investing with fiefs, and of having allegiance and homage paid to him in behalf, and in the name of, the holy empire. This allegiance and homage are, notwithstanding, to be renewed to the king of the Romans as soon as he is elected; but the fiefs of the princes, and those usually given with the standard, are specially reserved to the emperor alone, or to the king of the Romans; and in case of a vacancy of fiefs, the count palatine, as vicar of the empire, cannot alienate them during the time of his administration. Such is the law of the empire regulated by the Golden Bull: and the duke of Saxony enjoys the same privilege in the extent of his vicarship; for their departments are quite separate. The jurisdiction of the palatine is along the Rhine, and in the provinces aggregated to the circles of Suabia and Franconia; and the power of the duke of Saxony takes place in all the northern territories and principalities where the Saxon laws and privileges are in force.

However, the Palatine vicarship has already been involved in several difficulties. After the death of the emperor Ferdinand III. in 1657, the elector of Bavaria first disputed the Palatine's right. He opposed his competitor's pretensions; and, by the many writings published on both sides, the empire became divided in opinion. But in the election of the late emperor, Francis of Lorrain, there was a kind of partition, and each of the two electors exercised his right in a certain extent of country, which may happen again unless the diet of the empire should undertake to decide finally this matter.

After the electors comes the college of the princes of the empire, more extensive as to number, but less powerful than the electoral college, which, with the emperor, is at the head of the Germanic body. They are divided, as well as the electors, into two classes, ecclesiastical and secular.

Princes of the empire.

The first are at present the archbishop of Saltzburg, the most distinguished next to the three ecclesiastical electors. His revenue is very considerable. He has thirty-six chamberlains, who, as those of the electors, carry a gold key by their side. He is primate of Germany, and his chapter is composed of twenty-four capitulary canons, who have a right to elect their archbishop, as they have a right to be also elected. There are besides domiciliary canons, who become capitulary in rotation, according to their seniority. The archbishop of Saltzburg

Archbishop of Saltzburg.

has

has the particular privilege, which no other archbishop in the empire enjoys, of having the sole nomination to the bishopricks of Lavautz, in the Lower Carinthia, and Chi-emfee, a small town of the circle of Bavaria; but these two bishops are not princes of the empire.

*Bishop of
Bamberg.*

Bamberg sits next on the bench of ecclesiastical princes, as first bishop of the empire; he is one of the most powerful, and acknowledges only the pope for superior in spirituals. His chapter is composed of twenty capitulary canons, who have a right to elect and to be elected. This prelate is sovereign in his states, which consist of some portions of the territories of the four electors of Bohemia, Saxony, Bavaria, and Brandenburg.

*Bishop of
Wirtzburg.*

The bishop of Wirtzburg assumes the title of duke of Franconia, though this province depends on several secular princes. When he celebrates mass pontifically, his grand-marshal assists at it with his sword on his shoulder; hence came the proverb in Germany, *Herbipolis sola pugnat ense & stolâ*. His chapter consists of twenty-four capitulary canons, who, in order to be admitted, must not only make proof of nobility, but also undergo a ridiculous ceremony, which is of passing between two rows of canons, and receiving the discipline of rods from them on the naked shoulders. It is pretended that this custom was introduced to hinder princes, counts, and barons, getting into the chapter.

*Bishop of
Worms and
Spire.*

The bishoprick of Worms is one of the least considerable in revenue; its situation on the Rhine does not therefore make it the more prized, no more than that of Spire, situate above it on the same river. On the least motion of war these two states are commonly ruined or abandoned, not having strength enough themselves to provide for their security.

*Bishop of
Augsburg
and Con-
stance.*

The bishop of Augsburg, though in the midst of the empire, is not apprehensive of the like inconveniencies; but his power, both in spirituals and temporals, is extremely limited, being not permitted to remain in his episcopal city, but as long as his chapter admits him. Augsburg besides is a free and imperial city, holding only of the empire and emperor. The bishop of Constance, on a lake of the same name, is not more powerful, though the bishoprick was founded by the kings of France of the first race, and has a jurisdiction over eighteen hundred parishes. The city of Constance, formerly imperial, having refused the interim in 1548, was put under the ban

ban of the empire, and the house of Austria, having assumed the property of it, still enjoys the same.

The bishoprick of Paderborn was established by Charlemagne, who built its church in 777. This bishoprick is almost surrounded by Protestant princes, whose endeavours to make themselves masters of it oblige its chapter to make always choice of some powerful prince who might be in a condition to support and keep them independent of their enemies. The conditions for being received canon, are to have studied in an university of France or Italy, and to have resided there a year and six weeks, without lying out of the city. Paderborn was formerly free and imperial; but having made some motion in the sixteenth century in favour of the Protestants, it was laid under the ban of the empire, and subjected to its bishop.

*Bishop of
Paderborn.*

Hildesheim, whose bishoprick is not less sought after by the Protestants than that of Paderborn, owes its foundation to Lewis le Debonnaire, who transferred it to this city in 814; for Charlemagne had before established it in the borough of Eltze. Though the greater part of the inhabitants are Protestants, they acknowledge the bishop for their sovereign as well as the Catholics. When a canon has resided three months, he may be absent six years, that is, two years for travelling, two out of devotion, and two on account of study.

*Bishop of
Hildesheim.*

Ratisbon, situate on the Danube, is one of the most ancient cities in Germany. Its bishop, established about the year 740, is prince of the empire, and holds only of the see of Rome in spirituals; but he is not master of his city, which was made free and imperial about the close of the twelfth century. It is at present the place of assembly for the diets of the empire, and this is what makes it so considerable. The Catholics possess in it the cathedral, and upwards of twenty other churches; but their interest is otherwise so inconsiderable, that they are not only excluded the magistracy, but even the privileges of citizens.

*Bishop of
Ratisbon.*

The bishoprick of Osnabrug was founded by Charlemagne, in 776. Its bishop is sovereign in an opulent and plentiful country, that extends into Westphalia. The Lutherans have four canons in the chapter, and the bishop is alternately Catholic and Protestant; but the latter must be chosen in the house of Brunswick Lunenburg. In this case the archbishop of Cologne, as metropolitan, superintends all spiritual affairs, and the pope nominates

*Bishop of
Osnabrug.*

thereto

thereto an apostolical vicar. The present bishop of Osnabrug is his royal highness Frederic, second son of his majesty king George III. of Great Britain.

*Bishop of
Munster.*

The bishoprick and principality of Munster is one of the most considerable of the empire. Its bishop was established in 794, at the solicitation of Charlemagne, who endowed him with great possessions; but as Munster was not yet built, the foundation was at Mimingerode; and in the beginning of the ninth century, the second bishop Herman, had a monastery built, and it is from thence that the city then forming took its name. This bishop did not become a prince of the empire till 1246. The emperor Frederick II. made over his right of nominating to this bishoprick by a *congé d'elire*, which he granted the chapter. It was in this city that was concluded, in 1648, the famous treaty, whereby the king of Spain acknowledged the states-general of the United Provinces, as sovereign, free and independent.

*Bishop of
Aichstet and
Straßburg.*

The bishopricks of Aichstet and Straßburg are less extensive, and contribute much less to the charges of the empire. The first, situate between the Upper Palatinate and Bavaria, is indebted for its establishment to St. Boniface, archbishop of Mentz, who founded it in the year 748. The dignity of prince of the empire, with a seat in the diet, was preserved to the archbishop of Straßburg by the emperor Charles VI. though the greater part of this prelate's territory is now under the dominion of France; but he is still possessed of a large tract beyond the Rhine, in the empire, where his jurisdiction takes place both in temporals and spirituals.

*Bishop of
Liege.*

Though the bishoprick of Liege is aggregated to the Netherlands, its bishop is notwithstanding one of the most powerful princes of the circle of Westphalia. Its foundation was at Tongres, in the beginning of the fourth century, but was transferred to Liege in 709. The bishop is sovereign in the city, but there is something of a republican government in the state, which was formerly the cause of revolutions.

*Bishops of
Frisinghe,
Passau,
Basil,
Coire,
Trent, and
Brixen.*

The bishopricks of Frisinghe and Passau, in the circle of Bavaria, are inconsiderable; but they have always a rank and seat among the ecclesiastical princes, as well as Basil in Switzerland, and Coire in the Grisons country, Trent on the frontiers of Italy, and Brixen in the neighbourhood of Carinthia and Friuli, which give to their bishops the quality of princes of the empire, being fore-
reigns

reigns in their episcopal-cities, and under the protection of the house of Austria, though acknowledging no dependence on it.

The bishop of Lubeck, though a Lutheran, has always retained his vote and seat in the diet, as an ecclesiastical prince. The house of Holstein may be said to have made this prelacy its property, and the election of the chapter is but a matter of mere ceremony. The city was declared free and imperial in 1181, which was renewed and confirmed in 1227. The bishop has no temporal authority over the city, though he has always preserved his spiritual jurisdiction. In the sessions of the diet he is seated on a particular bench, separate from the other bishops. *Bishop of Lubeck.*

Before the revolutions occasioned in Germany in the beginning of the sixteenth century, by a difference in religious sentiments, there were several other ecclesiastical princes who had a vote and seat in the diets of the empire, but they are at present secularized, and converted into principalities, purely temporal, possessed by divers electors and other princes of the empire; as those of Magdeburg, formerly an archbishoprick and primacy in Germany; Bremen also an archbishoprick; the bishopricks of Halberstadt, Verden, Meriburg, Nawmburg, Meissen, Havelberg, Brandenburg, Lebus, Ratzeburg, Swrem, and Camin. *Secularized bishopricks.*

Besançon and Cambrai, though qualifying their prelates with the title of princes of the empire, have now neither vote nor seat in the states; the same may be said of the archbishops and bishops of Bohemia, Silesia, Moravia, Hungary, and Austria; but these even in ancient times had no vote nor seat in the diet. *Other bishopricks.*

We must reckon among the ecclesiastical princes the grand-master of the Teutonic order, who votes and sits before all the bishops. He was formerly settled in Ducal Prussia, which is now a kingdom. Albert, of the house of Brandenburg, seized that principality in the beginning of the sixteenth century, and established himself in it in the year 1525, with the title of duke, after introducing there the opinions of Luther, and having received the investiture of it from Poland. This grand-mastership underwent many revolutions in the empire, as well as the state of grand-prior of Malta, who sits also as prince in the imperial diets. *Grand-master of the Teutonic order, and grand-prior of Malta.*

The abbots come next in order, of whom the first is the abbot of Fulda, the primate and chief of the abbots, *Abbot of Fulda.*

and prince and arch-chancellor to the empress. In the last quality he formerly believed he could dispute the pre-
cedency with the secular electors, but his endeavours were to no purpose. Though his country, or rather his states, have been ruined during the long wars of the empire, he is still, notwithstanding, very rich, and enjoys great prerogatives: it may be also said, that he is the richest of all the abbots of Europe, and that he can maintain a good number of troops. His abbey owes its foundation to St. Boniface, bishop of Mentz, who established it in 744. The city is handsome and well built, and all parts of his principality are well cultivated.

Other abbots.

The other abbots are those of Kempten, in Swabia; of Elwangen, in the same circle, secularized in 1460; of Murbach, in Alsace; of the grand-prior of Malta; of Bergstolsgad, united with the diocese of Saltzburg; of Weissemburg; of Prum, united with the archbishoprick of Triers; of Stavelo, united with Malmedy, in the bishoprick of Liege. Corwey, or the New Corbie, in the circle of Westphalia, was founded in the year 823, by St. Adelard, abbot of Corbie, in France. The other prelates that are immediate, have altogether but one vote, as also the abbeesses, who are represented by their deputies.

Secular princes.

The secular princes take their seats after the ecclesiastical. These are principally those of Bavaria, and palatines of different branches, and of Saxony, Brandenburg, Brunswick, without mentioning many other princes who vote alternately; of this number are Mecklenberg, Wirtemberg, Hesse, and Baden.

Counts of the empire.

The immediate counts of the empire are divided into four classes; namely, those of Weteravia, Suabia, Franconia, and Westphalia, and each of those classes has but one vote. The number of those counts is about a hundred and ten.

Imperial cities.

The imperial cities form a third college in the diets of the empire, and are divided into two benches; namely, the branch of the Rhine, which has twenty, and that of Suabia, which has thirty-six; but all of them are not of equal consequence, except Cologne, Lubeck, Frankfort, and Hamburgh, in the bench of the Rhine; the greatest part of the rest enjoy but a shadow of liberty. Ratibon, Augsborg, Nuremberg, Ulm, and some others, are cities of consequence in the bench of Suabia; but most of those that come next are contented with enjoying their liberty. Those cities collectively were in former times so

con-

considerable in the empire, that it was sometimes apprehended they might occasion a general revolution; but the humbling of them, which was brought about by different wars, made this fear to vanish. They have but two votes in the diets, each bench one. It must, however, be observed in regard to their votes, that when the two colleges of electors and princes are agreed, the colleges of the cities is obliged to obey, and consent to their decisions, without any farther consultations among themselves.

Besides the diets, or general assemblies, particular ones are also held in the circles. Those circles are a sort of generalities; or great provinces, wherein the princes, prelates, counts, and imperial cities that compose them, assemble to regulate their common affairs. Their establishment is owing to the emperor Maximilian I. who first, in 1500, established six of them, as those of Franconia, Bavaria, Suabia, the Rhine, Westphalia, and Lower Saxony. In 1512 he added thereto those of Austria, Burgundy, the Lower Rhine, and Upper Saxony. Charles V. his grandson, confirmed this division at the diet of Nuremberg in 1522, and since this time it has always subsisted; but, pursuant to the treaty of Munster, in 1648, the circle of Burgundy being then deemed independent of the empire, has not since contributed to its charges. Each circle has its directors and a colonel. The first call together the assembly of the states of their circle, in order to regulate therein in concert the public affairs. The colonel commands the troops, and has the care of the artillery and the necessary ammunition. The states of each circle are to contribute to the wants of the empire, whereof they are members, by a tax imposed on them for maintaining the troops and defraying other expences, in proportion to the number of horse and foot, and other exigencies.

The circle of Austria, which the dignity of the house of Austria usually places in the first rank, comprehends the hereditary countries of that house, with the duchies of Stiria, Carinthia, and Carniola; to which are joined the county of Tyrol and Austrian Suabia, though separated from those provinces. The ecclesiastical princes of this circle are the bishops of Trent and Brixen. The secular princes are the archduke of Austria, the sole director of them; the others are the counts of Aversberg, Dietrichstein, and Piccolomini; to which are added the four forest towns in Switzerland belonging to the house of Austria.

*Account of
the house of
Austria.*

As to the original of this great and flourishing family, the disputes of various writers about it incontestably prove its great antiquity; and the different sentiments that have been published of it, are pregnant evidences of a desire to entitle many ancient and illustrious houses to the honour of being allied to this. The most probable and best attested of these accounts, make Rodolph, count of Hapsburg, generally reputed the founder, because he was the first emperor of this family, in 1273. He was descended by his father's side from the counts of Tierstein, near Basil, in Switzerland; and, by the mother's side, from the ancient counts of Hapsburg. From the time that Albert II. of this family, was chosen emperor, in 1438, the imperial dignity has continued in the house of Austria, in which the order of primogeniture has always determined the electors. Not long after Albert's demise, the whole monarchy of Spain fell to the same house, by the marriage of Philip I. Maximilian's son, to the infant Jane, daughter of the catholic king Ferdinand. This Philip being father to the emperors Charles V. and Ferdinand I. they formed two branches; the eldest of which reigned in Spain till 1700, when it came to be extinct by the death of Charles II. and the younger has had the good fortune ever since, by consent of the electors, to keep the imperial crown in their family. The said Ferdinand annexed the kingdoms of Bohemia and Hungary to the house of Austria, by his marriage with Anne, the heiress of those two kingdoms; and the late emperor Charles VI. after fourteen years war, begun by the emperor Leopold his father, and Joseph his brother, to regain the Spanish monarchy, made the peace of Radstadt, in 1714, with France; and that of Vienna, in 1725, with Spain; by which he renounced the Spanish monarchy, on condition of keeping the kingdoms of Naples and Sicily, and the ports and places on the coast of Tuscany, and that part of the Netherlands which formerly belonged to the crown of Spain. But by a subsequent treaty, concluded with France in October, 1735, his imperial majesty parted with Naples and Sicily to Don Carlos, the second son of the king of Spain, in lieu of which he had entailed upon him the succession to the duchies of Tuscany, Parma, and Placentia, on the demise of the late duke; and, in consequence thereof, the duke of Lorraine, the late emperor of Germany, who married the queen of Hungary, daughter to the said emperor, was great duke of Tuscany.

The

The Pragmatic Sanction is the name given to the disposition for entailing the Austrian estates upon the female issue, in case of failure in the male. Charles VI. made one in 1726, which was then sworn to by his own states, and, in 1706, made a public law by the German diet. It was also guarantied by Spain, Muscovy, Great Britain, the States General, Denmark, and at last by France. The tenor of this notable disposition was to this effect: all the hereditary countries were formed into one state, to remain for ever united and indivisible; and were granted, on the demise of his imperial majesty, to the archduchess, his eldest daughter, and her heirs, and on failure thereof, to her sister and her heirs; and, in default of both, the succession passes to the electoral princess of Saxony, the late queen of Poland, as eldest daughter of the emperor Joseph; thence to the electress of Bavaria, her sister; then to the house of Portugal; and lastly to that of Lorrain, or the nearest relations of the house of Austria who should offer themselves.—But to return to the circles.

Pragmatic Sanction.

The circle of Bavaria, of which the duke of Bavaria and the archbishop of Saltzburg are directors, is situate between Bohemia, Franconia, Suabia, Tirol, and Austria. Besides the archbishop of Saltzburg, the other ecclesiastical princes are the bishops of Frisinge, Ratisbon, and Passau, with the provost of Berchtolsgade, the abbies of Waldsachsen, Keyserhein, St. Emmeran, Nides, and Obermunster. The secular princes are the dukes of Bavaria and Neuburg, the prince of Sultzbach; the counts of Ortemburg, Sterstin, Eggemberg, and Lobkowitz. Ratisbon is the only imperial city of this circle.

Circle of Bavaria.

The circle of Suabia, a fertile and plentiful country, comprehends for ecclesiastical princes the bishops of Constance and Augsburg, with the abbies of Kempten, Ellwangen, Lindau, Buchaw, and several other less considerable, to the amount of twenty-one, including the Teutonic commandery of Altschaufen. The secular princes are the duke of Wirtemberg, the marquisses of Baden Baden and Baden Dourlach, with the principalities and counties of Hohenzollern and Furstenberg, and twelve other countries of less consequence. The principal imperial cities of this circle are Augsburg, Ulm, Heilbron, and a number of others less considerable. Its directors are the bishop of Constance and the duke of Wirtemberg.

Circle of Suabia.

The circle of Franconia extends not less than forty leagues either in length or breadth. It was anciently inhabited by the Franks, and was called Eastern France under

Circle of Franconia.

der the first and second race of the French kings. Pepin and Charlemagne gave their possessions in Franconia to the bishop of Wirtzburg. This country had dukes who were kings of Germany after the house of Charlemagne became extinct. The princes and states of this circle are the bishops of Bamberg, Wirtzburg, and Aichstet, with the grand-master of the Teutonic order. The secular states are the marquises of Culembach and Anspach, with the counts of Henneberg, Schwartzenberg, and seven or eight others less considerable. The city of Nuremberg is the richest and most important of the imperial cities in this circle, the directors of which are the bishop of Bamberg, and the marquis of Culembach, of the house of Brandenburg.

*Circle of
Upper
Saxony.*

The circle of Upper Saxony has no imperial cities, and but one director, who is the elector of that name. Its princes are now all secular. These are the electors of Saxony and Brandenburg, with the princes possessed of the secularized bishopricks of Merzburg and Naumburg, both at present united to the duchy of Saxony. There are also some titular abbots, but of the Lutheran communion. Almost all the princes of the house of Saxony have their estates in this circle, in which are also included the duchy of Pomerania, belonging to Brandenburg, and the principality of Anhalt.

*Circle of
Lower
Saxony.*

The circle of Lower Saxony, formerly occupied by the ancient Saxons, is one of the most extensive of the empire. Its ecclesiastical principalities are now reduced to those of Hildesheim and Lubeck. The secular princes are very powerful, as those of the duchy and electorate of Hanover, the duchies of Brunswick, Lunenburg, Mecklenburg, Holstein, Magdeburg, and Saxe-Lauenburg. The last is possessed by the elector of Hanover. Its imperial cities are Lubec, Bremen, and Hamburg; the rest are inconsiderable. Its direction is alternately under the duke elector of Hanover, as duke of Bremen, and under the elector of Brandenburg in quality of duke of Magdeburg, with the elder of the dukes of Brunswick.

*Circle of
Westphalia.*

The circle of Westphalia is considerable, very fertile, and one of the most powerful in the empire. Its directors are the dukes of Juliers and Cleves, who are so alternately as well as the bishop of Munster. The ecclesiastical princes of this circle are the bishops of Paderborn, Liege, Osnabrug, and Munster; with the abbots of Stablo, Corwey, St. Cornelis, Munster, and two others less powerful. The secular princes are the dukes of Juliers and Berg, at present the elector Palatine. The duke of

Cleves

Cleves is the elector of Brandenburg, in quality of count of la Marck, and also prince of East Friesland, and prince of Minden, a bishoprick secularized by the peace of Westphalia; but the principality of Verden belongs to the duke of Hanover, who purchased it, in 1712, from the king of Denmark. Except the estates of the house of Nassau, and the county of Ravensberg, which belongs to the elector of Brandenburg, the others are much less considerable. The imperial cities here are Cologne, Aix la Chapelle, and Dormund.

The electoral circle, or of the Lower Rhine, has both these names; the first, as comprehending four electorates; the second, as being in the Lower part of the Rhine. It is more considerable by its electors, than by the other princes or states that compose it. These electors are those of Mentz, Triers, Cologne, and Palatine. Mentz and Palatine are its directors; and, in the other states, the counties of Nassau Beilstein, Lower Isenburg, and Aremberg, are the most distinguished.

*Circle of
the Lower
Rhine.*

The circle of the Upper Rhine was anciently more extensive than at present. Its directors are the bishop of Worms, and the elector Palatine, as duke of Simmeren. The other ecclesiastical princes are the bishops of Strasbourg, for the estates they possess beyond the Rhine, the bishop of Spire and Basil; with the abbots of Fulda, Prum, and the grand-prior of the order of Malta in Germany. The principal secular princes are the palatine of the Rhine, the duke of Deux Ponts, the landgrave of Hesse, the prince of Hirschfeld, the counts of Hanaw, Nassau Wisbaden, and some others of distinguished birth, but not so powerful as those mentioned. The imperial cities are Worms, Spire, Frankfort on the Main, a place very considerable for its riches and commerce; Wetzlar, Gelnhausen, and Friedberg, which three last are much less considerable.

*Circle of
the Upper
Rhine.*

The circle of Burgundy comprehends the Franche Comté and the Netherlands; but at present all these states are independent of the empire, and not being concerned with the diets, they consequently form no circle.

*Circle of
Burgundy.*

Thus we see, that the diet, or parliament of Germany, is composed of the electors, the princes spiritual and temporal of the empire, and the deputies of the imperial cities. This general assembly of all the states of the empire is summoned by the emperor, by letters directed to every member,

*Diet of
Germany,
how as-
sembled and
held.*

member, six months before the session, informing them of the time and place. When they are assembled, the emperor, or his commissioner, proposes the matters to be transacted, which are things that concern the empire in general; such as raising money for a foreign war, and making laws which oblige all the states.

*Power of
the emperor,
and
laws and
constitu-
tions of the
empire.*

The power of the emperor has been so restrained by several capitularies, or agreements, between the emperor and the princes, that it is difficult to say what it is. The best account that can be given of it is, that he exercises regal authority over all Germany, except in such things as by grants of his predecessors he is restrained; the chief of which are, first, the emperor has not the legislative power. The general law throughout the empire is the civil, or Roman, mixed with the canon, and the old customs of the Germans; and, in the several states, the particular laws made by them, which firmly oblige in their respective dominions. To these are added, the statutes of the diets, by which alone any new laws can be introduced, or any law that will bind all the states; and such statutes of the diet oblige the emperor also. Next, the emperor cannot levy taxes out of his own dominions. If there be occasion for money to be raised for the service of the empire in general, it cannot be done without the consent of the diet. By the capitulary of the emperor Leopold, he was tied up from beginning a war, or making alliance with a foreigner, without the consent of the electors. By the same it is declared, that the emperor shall not deprive any prince, or state, of their dignity, or dominions, nor expel any man, though guilty of a great crime against the empire, without the diet: nor can he impose religion on any prince or state, or punish any man on that account. Except the states consent to a war, and promise their assistance, the emperor has no right to demand their help. He cannot assemble a diet without the consent of the electors, and when he grants investitures, it is in the name of the empire as well as his own. As to his own hereditary dominions, he may act as he pleases with respect to the particular laws there. In the empire also, he only can confer honours, create princes, enfranchise cities, institute universities, and give leave to build cities. He is served by the greatest princes of Germany; addressed to by the name of Cæsar, and *semper Augustus*; and his ambassadors in foreign courts take place of all crowned heads in Europe. He can prohibit the over-rating of the customs, to prevent the

the ruin of the trade of Germany; which is observed to be the only instance wherein he is left to exercise his power for the public good.

The king of the Romans is chosen to be the emperor's deputy, in case of his absence or sickness, and, upon his death, to succeed him without other election. This was introduced in policy by the emperors, that they might, in their life-time, secure the succession to their family, and procure their successors better terms than they might be able to obtain in a vacancy. It is usual for the king of the Romans to be first made king of Bohemia and Hungary; for it is to the first of these kingdoms that the electoral dignity is annexed. The archduke Joseph of Austria, the present emperor of Germany, was, in his father's life-time, elected king of the Romans, and installed and crowned with great pomp at Francfort.

King of the Romans.

The emperors are seldom crowned the same time they are chosen. The elector of Mentz, or his vice-chancellor, directs the ceremony, which, among other particulars, is performed with Charlemagne's crown, and the ancient imperial robes.

Coronation of the emperor.

According to a constitution of Charles V. every state of the empire is taxed in proportion to its ability; which tax, or quota, is entered into a public register, called the Matricula of the empire, and kept in the office of the elector of Mentz, the chancellor of the empire. There it is, that a prince, or other lord, and such city as the emperor makes a member of the empire, is obliged to be matriculated, with the consent of the college and circle to which they are to be aggregated. This constitution was established, not only for maintaining the forces of the empire, but for its other necessities. It was regulated at the rate of a certain number of horse and foot, or a sum of money to be paid monthly, by the name of the Roman months; because formerly the states of the empire were obliged to raise twenty thousand foot and four thousand horse, which they kept in pay, to accompany the emperor to Rome, when he went to receive the crown; and such as were not able to furnish their quota in troops, did it in money. This contingent was settled at twelve florins for a trooper, and four for a foot-soldier; but as the price of provisions was raised, in time this tax was extended to sixty florins for the former, and twelve for the latter; so that the tax of the present Roman month is equal to five of the old Roman months; but the matricula not having been altered since Charles V. and every state being taxed according

Matriculation of the empire.

according to the old footing, this deficiency was supplied, without derogating from the matricula, by augmenting the number of the months, in proportion to the levies required, and other necessary demands.

The total of the matricula is, in horse, two thousand five hundred and twenty-eight; in foot, twelve thousand three hundred and sixty; in florins, seventy-seven thousand four hundred and seven. The ecclesiastical electors, with the other ecclesiastical princes, are able to raise seventy-four thousand five hundred men; and the emperor, secular electors, and other secular princes, three hundred seventy-nine thousand. By the total, therefore, of the forces of the empire, which is four hundred fifty-three thousand five hundred men, and by other particulars, it appears, that the emperor and the empire make the most potent government in Europe, when they have a good understanding with one another.

S E C T. IX.

Of Carniola, Croatia, Sclavonia, Hungary, Transylvania, and the Turkish Dominions in Europe.

Some of the dominions of the house of Austria, out of Germany.

ADJOINING to the Venetian territories, and extending to Turkey in Europe, are some of the dominions of the house of Austria, consisting of Carniola, Croatia, Sclavonia, Hungary, and Transylvania.

C A R N I O L A

Part of Trieste.

IS included in the circle of Austria; but the chief place of note, lying on the confines of Carniola, and on the coast, is Trieste, a port-town of Istria, situate on the gulf of Venice. Great quantities of salt are made here, and exported; and the neighbouring country produces good wine, called by the Germans *reinfaß*, which the Venetians buy cheap, and sell for exportation. The harbour is large, but is only frequented by small vessels, just to cross over to Venice; though the late emperor Charles VI. who had no other sea-port in all his hereditary dominions before the treaty of peace at Rastadt, which threw Italy, Sicily, and the Spanish Netherlands, into his hands, made this a free port, and gave great encouragement to the ships and merchants of all nations to come to it, designing to make it the center of the Austrian commerce in these parts

parts of the world. But the merchants of Trieste not having a stock, the Venetians themselves came among them, and carried on that trade for them, by which they were so sanguine at one time, as to think of supplanting even Venice itself: for from this port the Venetian merchants struck into a new commerce, by the river Save to Belgrade, and thence to Sinope in the Black Sea, and likewise to Constantinople. But the most that it appears the Austrians have done yet here, is to send some ships among the Archipelago islands, from whence they bring back wines, cotton yarn, fruits, some silk, grogram yarn, camel's hair, and such goods. The great misfortune they laboured under, for carrying on the great trade promised from this port was, that they had no fund of goods for exportation, either of their produce or manufacture; the chief they could export of any value being the wrought iron made in Carinthia, Styria, and the adjacent countries; which, indeed, is of great service to the Venetians, because they have no iron-works near them. Upon the whole, therefore, the trade of this new free port is not likely to answer the end proposed; yet the merchants keep up their expectations of trade, and some time ago talked of erecting manufactures of wool and silk, that they might have something more to export besides iron. However, the house of Austria have a noble revenue from the rich wine made and sold at Proseg, which is about seven miles north-west of Trieste.

C R O A T I A

WAS once divided between the Hungarians and *Croatia*. Turks, but is since subject for the most part to the house of Austria. The present boundaries of this province are the river Save on the north and north-east, which parts it from Sclavonia; Bosnia on the east, Carniola on the west, and Morlachia on the south and south-west. It is above eighty miles in length either way. It pays above twice the sum Sclavonia does to the emperor's extraordinary subsidies. The soil is fruitful in wine and oil, as well as all necessaries for life, where it is cultivated; but being a frontier province, like Sclavonia, labours under the same inconveniencies. The people, called Croats, are of a good stature, valiant, hardy, and good soldiers, especially the horsemen, who are so famous, that they are entertained in most of the courts of Germany, as their horse-guards.

SCLAV

SCLAVONIA.

SCLAVONIA, including Ratzia, is bounded by the rivers Drave and Danube, which separate it from Hungary; on the north-east by the river Save, which divides it from the Turkish provinces of Servia and Bosnia on the south-west; and by Croatia and the country of Cilley on the west, being two hundred miles long, and sixty miles broad. It is a fine level fruitful country, where cultivated; but having been for many years a frontier province against Turkey, and subject to the ravages of the Christian as well as the Turkish armies, it has produced but little corn or wine. The chief town is Posiega. The Ratzians inhabit the eastern division of the country; and the natives in general are of good stature, a brave hardy race, soldiers from their cradles, their country having been long the seat of war.

The ancient Sclavonia contained many large countries. Some have extended it from the Adriatic to the Euxine sea. It is said to have taken its name from the Sclavi, a Scythian nation, which subdued Greece as well as this country, in the reign of the emperor Justinian. The Venetians made a conquest of Sclavonia, and compelled the natives to submit to the vilest drudgeries, inasmuch that some derive the word *slave* from this people, thus oppressed and abused by their conquerors. The Hungarians and Venetians possessed this country alternately. The king of Hungary was sovereign of Sclavonia, when Solymán the Magnificent invaded and reduced it in 1540; and the Turks remained possessed of it till the year 1687, soon after which they lost this, and all the territories the Austrians possess north of the Save and Danube.

Kingdom of HUNGARY.

THE kingdom of Hungary is situate between 16 and 23 degrees of east longitude from London, and between 45 and 49 degrees of north latitude, bounded by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland on the north; by Transylvania and Wallachia on the east; by the river Drave, which separates it from Sclavonia on the south; and by Austria and Moravia on the west. The country abounds with mines of gold, silver, and other metals, as also pits of salt. No soil is scarce more fruitful.

ful in general. It produces good corn in such plenty, that it is six times as cheap as in England. Their grapes are large and luscious, and their wines, particularly those of Tockay, preferred to any in Europe. They have great plenty of grass and cattle, of which latter they send incredible numbers to Germany, not less than eighty thousand in a year. Among other medicinal plants they have rhubarb. Their breed of buffaloes is very good, which serve them in ploughing and husbandry. Their horses are swift, but not large, and therefore more used for riding than draught. They have such numbers, that their kings have brought fifty thousand into the field. Here is abundance of deer, wild fowl, and other game, which every body has the privilege of taking, so that they are the common food of the very boors. They have no great foreign commerce, besides the exportation of their cattle and wines; and no other manufactures of consequence, besides those of copper and other hardwares, though the late queen of Hungary greatly encouraged divers capital manufactures, which are likely to prove very prosperous. No country produces so many metals as this, tin excepted; and in some parts are found even diamonds and other precious stones. The peasants, even as they till the ground, sometimes find grains of gold. They have likewise great plenty of white, red, and black marble, and some fine porphyry. This country abounds also with salubrious hot baths and fountains; and some of them are of vitriolic, petrifying, and other peculiar qualities. Its air is temperate, but in the summer the days are excessive hot, and the nights as cold. Its many marshes and lakes render it frequently unwholesome; and its waters, except those of the Danube, are stinking; but they are all well stocked with fish, especially the Tibiscus, where one thousand carp have been sold for a crown, and in some places they throw their fish to the hogs. This prolific quality of the rivers is ascribed to the hot exhalations that rise every where out of the sulphureous soil, especially in the south part.

The Huns, a Scythian nation, possessed themselves of this country in the third century, and communicated their name to it, being then part of the ancient Pannonia. It was at first divided into many little principalities and states, which at length united under one head, who had the title of duke. The last of these dukes was Geyse, who, becoming a profelyte to Christianity, was baptized; after which he resigned the government to his son Stephen,

phen, who took the title of king in the year 1000. It was an elective kingdom many years, but generally in one family, and the constitution of the government was a limited monarchy. Charles Robert ascended the throne in 1310, and subdued Bulgaria, Servia, Croatia, Dalmatia, Sclavonia, and many other provinces, which he annexed to his dominions, some whereof the Venetians recovered from him. The Turks invaded Hungary in the fifteenth century, in the reign of Ladislaus an infant king; but were bravely repulsed by the celebrated Hunniades, who was regent of the kingdom during the minority of Ladislaus. On the death of Ladislaus, the Hungarians, in gratitude for the father's services, elected Mathius Corvinus, the son of Hunniades, their king, in 1458. Lodovick, king of Hungary, engaging Solymán, emperor of the Turks, with very unequal numbers, was defeated and killed in battle, in 1526, and great part of Hungary lost. John, waywode of Transylvania, ascended the throne of Hungary the same year; but was deposed by Ferdinand, brother of the emperor Charles V. Solymán restored king John; and at this time began the wars between the German and Turkish emperors, for the dominion of Hungary, which lasted near two hundred years. Ferdinand, archduke of Austria, was advanced to the throne of Hungary in 1527; and the Austrians have been able to influence the elections in such a manner, as to keep the crown in their family ever since; so that the kingdom, from being elective is now become an absolute hereditary monarchy. The emperor Charles VI. procuring it to be settled on his female issue, in default of males, his eldest daughter, the late empress-queen, enjoyed it to her death, and was succeeded by her son the present emperor. The Hungarians are a brave and warlike people, and their country has long stood as a barrier against the Turks. Their troopers are called hussars, and their foot heydukes; and the insurgents are a militia that are raised on the last necessity.

TRANSYLVANIA.

TRANSYLVANIA is a principality bounded by the Carpathian mountains, which divide it from Poland on the north; by the Iron-gate mountains, which divide it from Turkey on the south; and by Hungary on the west. The country is very mountainous, and covered with woods, as the frontiers towards Turkey also are, from whence the Latin name of Transylvania was given it. The air is warm, but not so unhealthy as that of Hungary. The
foik

soil is fruitful, abounding in corn, wine, cattle, and rich pastures; and their mines and sands of their rivers afford gold, silver, iron, and salt. Their principal manufactures are copper and iron utensils; their foreign trade is inconsiderable; and though the soil is rich, it does not yield so much profit to the sovereign as might be expected, it being a frontier province, and frequently plundered by friends and foes; which is the reason also that it is not populous.

Transylvania was part of the ancient Dacia, which is said to have been subdued by Lyfimachus, one of Alexander's generals. Julius Cæsar repulsed the Dacians, when they passed the Danube and invaded the Roman empire. Augustus fortified the southern shore of the Danube, to prevent their incursions. The emperor Trajan subdued them, and reduced Dacia to the form of a province. It was over-run by the Goths, on the decline of the Roman empire, and the Goths were expelled by the Huns. Stephen I. king of Hungary, subdued Transylvania, and introduced the Christian religion there, in the year 1000. From that time Transylvania was a province in Hungary, and governed by an Hungarian viceroy, called a waywode, or vaivod, and their vaivods at length set up for themselves, and assumed an independency. In the year 1526, two rival princes contended for this principality; one of them was supported by the German emperor, and the other by the Turk; whereupon this country became the seat of war for many years. The princes of the house of Ragotski were at the head of the Protestant faction, and supported by the Turks; but being at length obliged to quit Transylvania by the Austrians, Ragotski fled for refuge into Turkey, and at the treaty of Carlowitz, in 1699, this country was confirmed to the house of Austria by the Turks.

It is at present inhabited by three different people, Saxons, Huns, and Cingars, that have little relation to each other. The Saxons have near two-thirds of the country; the posterity of the Huns are situate on the north-east; and the Cingars, who are gypsies, live in tents, and encamp all over the country.

TURKEY in EUROPE.

THE Turks are possessed in Europe of Romania, Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia, Ragusa, Walachia, Moldavia, Bessarabia, Budziac, and Ockzakow Tartary, Crim and Little Tartary,

Tartary, Albania, Epirus, Macedonia, Thessaly, and all the ancient Greece, with its numerous islands in the Archipelago. Thus happily situated in the center of our continent, if we reckon in their Asiatic territories, which we have already given an account of, they could not fail of acquiring the trade as well as the empire of the whole world, if these glorious advantages were not lost by their indolence and inactivity, and the destructive maxims of their government. But though the Turks are no traders, being rather discouragers and destroyers of trade; yet, as they possess so great a part of the world, and some of the most fruitful countries, and productive of the best and choicest merchandizes, it will always induce the European parts of the world to send their merchants among the Turks, to traffic with them; and the Turks themselves, by their haughtiness, despising manufacturing, and not improving the product which they enjoy in many places, must necessarily be obliged to purchase of other nations the things they stand in need of; which naturally encourages the merchants of the other nations to come among them.

*State of the
Turkey
trade in
general.*

Those that settle among them from the eastern part of the world, are generally Greeks, Jews, Armenians, and Georgians; those from the western parts are chiefly Venetians, French, and Dutch, with some Jews also, chiefly Italian.

The principal places of trade on this side the Turkish dominions, respecting Europe, where the said merchants reside, are Constantinople, Smyrna, Aleppo, Alexandretta or Scanderoon, Alexandria, Tripoli, Antioch, and the islands on the coast. There are some Christian merchants in most of the islands belonging to the Turks, as at Cyprus, Candia, Rhodes, Zant, Cephalonia, and in most of the inhabited islands of the Ægean sea, or Archipelago. These merchants are generally French, though there are some Jews. This commercial establishment, by way of factories, among the Turks, taking the same all together, is, in one general acceptance, called with us the Turkey trade; the manner of which trade is this.

The merchants of England, France, and Holland, chiefly furnish the Turks with fine woollen cloths, dyed scarlet, crimson, purple, blue, and green; the first three in grain, and as rich in colour as possible, which raises their value. The English, besides their cloth, send block-tin, lead, clock-work and watch-work, both in gold and silver; and, all put together, the value was formerly for upwards

of

of three hundred thousand pounds sterling, one year with another. The returns which the Franks (for so the European merchants are called in Turkey) make from the Turks, and which are the product of the Turkish and Persian dominions, are as follow.

Raw silk: this, though the chief return of the whole trade, is not all the immediate produce of the grand signor's dominions, but of the Persians also, is brought from the country where it is produced to Aleppo, and from thence to Scandaroon, where the merchants trade for it. The silk, thus brought raw in bales from Persia, is *sherbaff*, the Persian word for raw silk, or, perhaps, for silk in general. When this *sherbaff* silk is landed here, and comes into the hands of our manufacturers, it is called by a name of their own, *legee*. Besides this, the Levant or Turkey merchants import another sort of raw silk, which they call *white*, and our workmen *belladine*: this is shipped either at Cyprus or Scanderon, on board the same Turkey ships that bring the other sort of raw silk, but is produced in several distant parts of the Turkish dominions, as at Cyprus, Antioch, and Tripoli; that is, in the country adjacent to the ancient Syria, and in several islands of the Archæes. The same sort of silk is also shipped off at Smyrna. This island silk is generally the product of the islands of Andros, Naxos, Zea, Thermia, Syra, Santorini, &c. The quantity of silk imported formerly from these places, and as comprehended under the denomination of the Turkey trade, has been calculated at between three and four hundred thousand pounds weight, one year with another, except that, upon some occasions, the trade met with an interruption, as in the time of a plague and war.

The other importations are, 1. Wool and yarn; as Carmania wool, and wool of the islands; grogram and mohair yarn, that is, goats hair, spun or twisted; cotton wool and yarn, from almost all the islands of the Ægean sea. 2. Gums, such as gum dragant, sandarac, senega, arabic, *sarcocolla*. 3. Manufactures, as Persian silks, carpets, *burdets*, callicoes, from the islands of Siphanto, Paros, &c. *cordevans*, shagreen skins. 4. Drugs, dye-stuffs, earths, &c. as galls, from Syria; coffee, from Mocha by Alexandria, balm, natural balsam, rhubarb; from Persia, *sal ammoniac*, turmeric, incense, pumices; from Santorini, storax; from Samos, scammony, myrrh, manna, galbanum, fena, aloes hepatica, olibanum, zedoary, esquinethes, hypoastri, *aceatrice*, oker, emery-stone, bolus an

earth, adrachne, all at Samos; velani, from the island of Zea; colocintida, euphorbium, mirabolans, frankincense, from Persia and Egypt; mastic, from Scio and Naxos, besides opium and some other articles. 5. Liquids, as arac, orange-flower-water, vermicelli, turpentine. 6. Seeds, as worm-feed, clover-feed, garden-seeds, rice. 7. Fruits, as figs, pistachas, raisins of Smyrna, pomegranates. 8. Woods, as box and cypress-wood, fustic, ebony, walnut-tree.

These are the principal productions with which the merchants of Europe trade among the Turks. The number of drugs may, perhaps, be greater than what are here mentioned, but these are the most considerable. The chief articles are the silk which comes from Georgia and Persia, the wool, the hair, and the galls. The cotton, as well in wool as yarn, and also most of the goat's hair, is the product of the islands on the Asiatic side of the Archipelago, and those also of the European side. These serve for the bulk of the trade; the others, perhaps, are equally useful in their kind, but not of equal value in general commerce.

As the Turks have little or no trade but what is, as it were, forced by the Europeans and others, so they have but few ships, compared to the extent of their naval dominions. The chiefest of their shipping is among the Grecian islands, and these are such as belong to the Greeks. Also in the Morea and in the Black Sea they have some shipping; but, for the traffic between Egypt and the Porte, they generally hire English, Dutch, or Venetian ships upon freight.

The produce of the islands is exceeding great, and assists the Turks in making returns for the goods they buy of the European merchants; for the Turks are either such strangers to correspondence, or such enemies to all the world but themselves, that they have no such thing as exchange; so that, to balance their trade, they are frequently at a great loss, if the balance runs against them. It is true, it may be in their favour in one place, and the contrary in another, whereby they may sometimes bring one part to make good another; but they cultivate no epistolary correspondence, no regular posts going from one place to another, to adjust these things; so that most trade and business are executed by messages and expresses; and as for money returned from place to place, it must be carried all in specie: much less have they any
assurances

assurances for the risque of trade, or any of the usual conveniencies of commerce that other nations have.

From what has been here said, in relation to this branch of trade, a right judgment might be made of its importance; yet, important as it is, it has indeed languished to that degree, that our Turkey merchants, who, some years since, figured at the top of the commercial world, now bow their diminished heads. However, the trade is not entirely sunk; on the contrary, we import annually from Aleppo above six hundred bales of raw silk. This alone is a great national object; for if those six hundred bales of raw silk contain one hundred and eighty thousand small pounds, what a benefit do we not receive by the manufacturing of this silk, in the article of labour?

Constantinople, situate in east longitude 30 deg. 15 min. latitude, 41 deg. 3 min. is the place where all the Turkish wealth and power may be said to centre, as being the metropolis of their empire. It was anciently called Byzantium, and by the Turks at this day, Stamboul; but frequently, by European nations, the Porte; being one of the securest and most commodious harbours in Europe. It lies on the western shore of the Bosphorus, or streight of Constantinople, in the province of Romania. The city is built in the form of a triangle, and the ground rising gradually from the shore, the whole town appears at one view from the sea. The seraglio or palace is built upon the point of the triangle, which runs out between the Propontis and the harbour, and underneath the palace are the gardens, which extend to the water-side. It is surrounded by a wall of no great strength about twelve miles in circumference, exclusive of Galata, and the other suburbs. The streets are narrow, and the private houses mean, built chiefly of wood, so that when a fire happens, thousands of them are sometimes destroyed; but the public buildings, palaces, mosques or temples, bagnios, and caravanseras for the entertainment of strangers, are many of them very magnificent. The chief mosque, particularly that which was formerly the metropolitan church of St. Sophia, is said to be the finest temple in the world, covered with five extensive domes or cupolas.

It would be an endless, if not an unnecessary task to enter into a particular detail of all the countries and provinces of European Turkey; so that it may be sufficient to observe, that they are either inhabited by Turks, of whom

we have given an account under Asia, or by Christians, chiefly Greeks, or by Tartars.

Greeks.

The Greeks, the ancient inhabitants of the better part of these countries, were eminent for their wit and learning, for their great actions, and for the numerous heroes that appeared amongst them; but since they have been subject to the barbarous Turk, most of their fine cities have been destroyed, and a deluge of ignorance introduced into those admired seats of learning and politeness. The Athenians retain, perhaps, to this day more vivacity, more genius, and a politer address, than any other people in the Turkish dominions. Oppressed as they are at present, they notwithstanding oppose, with great courage and wonderful sagacity, every addition to their burden, which an avaricious or cruel governor may attempt to lay on them. They want not for artful speakers and busy politicians, so far as relates to the affairs of their own city. Some of their priests have the reputation of being learned men, and excellent preachers. There is great sprightliness and expression in the countenances of both sexes, and their persons are well-proportioned. The men have a due mixture of strength and agility, without the least appearance of heaviness; and the women have a peculiar elegance of form and of manner. Some of the most curious remains of antiquity are to be found in Greece, and particularly at Athens, and those monuments of antiquity may be truly said to be capable, not only of illustrating history, but regulating taste, as they afford the most essential helps for the improvement of architecture, painting, sculpture, and all the arts which embellish it.

Tartars.

The Tartars of European Turkey are those that lie next to Poland. By their incursions into that kingdom they have made themselves well known, and are called Little Tartars, to distinguish them from those of Asia. Like these they are divided into several hords, each forming a different nation: the Gubans, the Tartars of the Crimea, or Perecop; the hord of Ockzakow, and that of Budziack.

Besides these four species of Little Tartars, there is another very singular one, of which it may not be improper to take notice. They are situated in the heart of Lithuania. Some tribes of this people formerly threatened that duchy: Vitoldus, uncle of Jagellon, a bold and haughty prince, marched against them and succeeded. He led captive into Lithuania many thousands of those Tartars

of both sexes. He treated them mildly, and assigned them lands near Vilna to cultivate, which their posterity possess at this day. They have retained Mohammedanism, and all their ancient customs; but they are less barbarous than those of the Crimea, and its neighbourhood. They love work, are very sober, and of inviolable fidelity. The grandees of Poland are fond of having them in their service.

All these Tartars in general, originally one and the same people, come into the world with their eye-lids closed together so fast, that for some days they cannot open them. They are thickset, with broad shoulders, and extremely strong and vigorous. They have a short neck and large head, a flat face almost round, a large forehead well shaped, bright eyes, a short nose, a little mouth, white teeth, an olive complexion, rough black hair, and scarce any beard. They clip the hind part of their head, leaving only a tuft before. They never till the ground, and are strangers to all the arts of luxury and effeminacy. They know nothing of the sciences. Their laws are simple, and are derived from plain good sense, as much as from custom. Gentle and affable among themselves, they are so likewise to those whom trade brings into their country. They have no law-suits nor quarrels among them. If any one has a claim upon another, he goes to one of the principal men, called *maurzas*, who determines it without long discussion, and without formality. Prejudiced in favour of Mahommed's law, which they profess, they abhor all Christians; and in their invasions, covering their avarice with a religious motive, they make a merit of causing Christians to feel all the ferocity of their character.

They are brought up very hardy. Destined to a life of toil, they are inured to it from their infancy. Mothers often wash their children in cold water, mixed with salt, to harden their skins: hence, in the depth of winter, they swim across rivers without suffering any inconveniency. To teach them to be marksmen, they receive no food after they are seven years old, but what they kill with their arrows.

Their clothing is sheep's-skins. In winter, they wear the wool next to them; but in summer, or when it rains, the other side. The khan, and all his family, are clothed in silk, which they usually receive in presents from the neighbouring nations, particularly Poland; and the officers wear cloth. They wear no turban, but bonnets of the Polish fashion.

Their arms are a crooked sabre, a lance, and a bow. They are afraid of fire-arms. They fight at a distance, and even in their flight, let fly their arrows; but if they cannot avoid a close fight, they use their sabres with such dexterity, that it is not easy to ward off the blows. In their flight, they are very swift, and their pursuers run a great risque, not so much from their arrows, as from their unexpected return. They all carry a knife and an awl, to make leather straps to bind their prisoners. They often poison the points of their arrows.

Their horses are extremely brisk and nimble runners, and as indefatigable as their riders; but they make no shew: the Tartars often make them travel fifty or sixty miles without halting. They cut the cartilage which separates their nostrils, that, breathing more easily, they may be less apt to give out, however violently they may be rode. They always lead several in their hands, and when one is tired, they spring on the back of another without stopping a moment.

The usual food of these Tartars, and that of which they are most fond, is horse-flesh. Bread and mutton are reserved for the rich, and for those that live in towns without ever taking the field. The poorer sort bake, under ashes, cakes made of millet, barley, or other corn, which grows spontaneously. The Poles call this bread tatarka. Though some become servants to others, yet most of them choose rather to seek their food by rapine, than to earn it by an ignominious subjection. It is scarce conceivable, considering their indefatigability in war, how lazy and slothful they are in their families, where they spend their days in the most contemptible ignorance. When they kill a horse, they first thrust a knife into his throat, and carefully saving the blood, mix it with flour of millet, and make a kind of pudding, which they hold to be delicious. They afterwards cut the horse into four quarters; the master reserves one only for himself, and sends the other three as presents to his friends or neighbours, who make returns in kind.

Their usual drink is water. In some parts of their country there is none, and they either have not the sense to dig pits, or they neglect it through indolence. Snow, however, in the winter, supplies the defect. Those who live more comfortably than the rest, make a kind of drink of boiled millet; it is of the consistence and colour of milk, and, drank to excess, will intoxicate. However, they esteem nothing comparable to mare's milk, which they

they chiefly use when they cross deserts to make war. Being Mohammedans, they abstain from wine, or drink it only by stealth; but they think the frequent use of brandy no breach of their laws.

When they find themselves indisposed, they open a vein of a horse, drink the blood hot, and fatigue themselves as much as possible by galloping. If any one is so weak that he cannot use this exercise, two of them get on horseback, and holding him each by an arm, make him ride at full speed. There are few ailments which they do not actually cure, or believe they cure, by this remedy. Without any other occasion than to appease their hunger or thirst, when they have nothing else, they bleed their horses, and drink the blood: this, likewise, was the custom of the ancient Scythians. They all carry millet-meal with them when they go to war. They mix it with water; and this supports them in their painful marches, and extremely refreshes them in the great heats.

Ever ready to make incursions among their neighbours, because they have no other way of supplying themselves with what they want, they are not apprehensive of being attacked in their turn. They trust to the power of the Turks for their protection.

When they are preparing for an expedition, they send their horses for some time to graze in the fields to fatten; their khan holds council with the galga, or *general of the army*; they assemble their chief murzas; they draw up the plan of operations, or rather of the ravages to be committed. If the khan commands in person, all must march with him; none must stay even to guard their country; nor are the infirmities of old age admitted as an excuse. On these occasions, the army amounts to one hundred thousand men, and two or three hundred thousand horses; for each Tartar has two or three.

They cross rivers in a very extraordinary manner. one gathers rushes or reeds, which he fastens to two long poles, and makes a kind of raft, on which he places his cloaths and arms. He ties these poles to the tail of one of his horses, whose mane he holds with one hand, and holding a rod in the other to guide the horse, he swims with his feet, and passes the river quite naked. These rafts, though thus made in haste, are so compact and well joined, that they carry safely such of their slaves as cannot swim.

If they have effects which water might damage, they kill four horses that are nearly of a size, and preserving the

the skins whole, after taking out the flesh and bones, they blow them up like bladders, and place them on sledges, or waggons, of which they take off the wheels. Several Tartars swim at the sides to secure this floating machine, which is drawn by two horses, each of which has a conductor to guide him to shore.

They are more eager to make incursions in winter than in summer, because in that season they find, in the houses of the peasants, all the provisions which in summer they must collect in the fields, and the rivers and marshes being frozen, they can go any where without hindrance; the snow too renders the roads more convenient for their horses, which they never shoe. The feeding of their horses gives them no more trouble than the feeding of themselves; they require neither provisions nor magazines. Moss, bark of trees, and poor herbs, are to them as good, and support them as well as the choicest forage; and, in winter, they seek their food under the snow, which they remove with their feet.

The Tartars, in their expeditions, never follow the usual beaten paths. They always chuse the least known and most difficult roads; and, to cover their march still more, they make fires in their camp. By these means, they surprise even those who are most upon their guard against these incursions. When they arrive within three or four leagues of the country into which they intend to penetrate, they halt for some days to rest. They then divide into three bodies, two of which compose the main body of the army: the third is subdivided, and forms a large detachment at each side. In this order they enter the country; the center advances in a parallel line with the right and left; but the whole marches night and day, without halting above an hour at most.

After marching sixty or eighty leagues into the country, (which tract they spare at present, passing through it only as travellers) the two wings are ordered to disperse six leagues round, divided again into ten or twelve brigades, of above five or six hundred men each, and these into several others. As they advance, they make what haste they can to pillage the country; and joining again by degrees, and in the same order in which they separated, they carry the booty to the main body of the army, which, during this time, kept together to repel the inhabitants who might assemble to attack them. Two new corps are detached to scour the parts where the former had been; and in the instant these return, a third detachment

tachment is sent out to gather the gleanings the others may have left. These barbarians spare none; they cut the throats of infants and old people; but men and women, boys and girls, they compel to follow them. The number of their captives has sometimes exceeded fifty thousand. They generally burn the houses they have plundered, and turn the most pleasant and fruitful countries into a frightful desert.

The same havoc which they make round the places they fix for the limits of their incursions, they make also in their return in those parts which they spared at first, provided they are not pursued. When they pass the frontiers, and get to a place of safety, they repose themselves, and divide the booty, of which one-tenth is always reserved for the khan. They cruelly separate all the members of one family; the husband from the wife, the children from the parents, allotting them to different persons, and selling them into different countries. They sell many of them to the Turks, who employ them on board their galleys; but they reserve the young women to be the unfortunate victims of their brutality. Though they arrive in a country all together, yet, in going back, they march in several divisions, that those who follow them, seeing several tracks, may not know precisely which road they have taken. On these occasions, the Cossacks, who have almost as much ferocity, and no less love of plunder, generally lay ambuscades for them. They wait for them in defiles, or even in the midst of plains, where they march in tabort; that is the name they give to their manner of travelling between two rows of waggons, which inclose them; and from thence they fire on the Tartars with small-arms. It seldom happens but that the whole army is put into disorder; they fly in such confusion, that one runs over another, without respect even to their leaders. Each runs whither his fears carry him; and if they are pursued, they gradually throw away all they carry. They strew effects in the way, to amuse the enemy; they throw away even their arms, and often, without ceasing to run, they cut the girths of their saddles, and let them fall off, in order to relieve their horses, that they may run the more swiftly.

S E C T. X.

Of Poland.

*Present
state of
Poland.*

POLAND, in its present state, presents us with several striking contrasts: the regal dignity existing with the name of a republic; civil laws with feudal anarchy; a rude resemblance of the Roman commonwealth with Gothic barbarism; and abundance united with poverty.

Nature has furnished the inhabitants of this country with all the materials of opulence, such as corn, pasture, cattle, wool, hides, leather, salt, metals, and minerals; and yet they are the poorest nation in Europe. The chief source of the wealth of Poland is the sale of the crown. Both land and water concur to invite commerce, and yet it has never appeared among them: the number of fine rivers, the Duna, the Bog, the Niester, the Vistula, the Niemen, the Borysthenes, serve only to make a figure in geographical maps. It has been often observed, that it would be an easy matter to join the Northern Ocean and the Black Sea by canals, and, by this means, take in the commerce both of the East and West; but the Poles are so far from building merchant-ships, that they have never thought of forming a naval force to protect them from the fleets of their enemies, by which their country has often been insulted. Their dominions are larger than France, and yet do not contain more than six millions of inhabitants. They leave a fourth part of their lands uncultivated, and yet the land is excellent, which makes the loss so much the more to be lamented.

Poland is bounded by the Baltic Sea and Livonia, on the north; by Russia, on the east; by Turkey and Hungary, on the south; and by Pomerania, Brandenburg, Silesia, and Moravia, on the west. A kingdom of such extent, being two hundred leagues in breadth, and four hundred in length, would require numerous armies to guard its extensive frontiers, and yet it can scarce pay forty thousand men. King Stanislaus, who governed it for some time, and who has shewn that he was capable of doing in a whole kingdom, what he has actually done in a single province of France: a king equally qualified for writing and acting, informs us, "that there are cities in Europe, whose treasury is richer than that of Poland; and that two or three merchants of London, or Amsterdam, trade for much larger sums than the income of all the

the lands belonging to the republic." Such a republic can never have made the reflection, that the power of Holland was originally founded upon the art of catching and salting herrings.

Before the sixth century, when the Poles were yet Sarmatians, they had no kings, but lived without government, in mountains and forests, having no habitations but waggons; always meditating some new invasion; bad troops for foot-service, but excellent cavalry. It is something surprising, that a barbarous people, without a leader, and without laws, should stretch their empire from the Tanais to the Vistula, and from the Euxine Sea to the Baltic: boundaries prodigiously distant from each other, and which they enlarged still farther by the acquisition of Bohemia, Moravia, Silesia, Lusatia, Misnia, Mecklenburg, Pomerania, and the marches of Brandenburg. The Romans, to whom so large a part of the world submitted, never penetrated into Sarmatia.

*General
history of
Poland.*

This historical paradox shews what can be done by strength of body, a habit of living hardly, a natural love of liberty, and a savage instinct, which supplies the place of kings and laws. The Sarmatians were called robbers by civilized nations, who forgot that they themselves had begun in the same manner.

The Poles, who took this name about the middle of the sixth century, are far from having preserved entire the inheritance left them by their ancestors. It is a long time since they lost Silesia, Lusatia, great part of Pomerania, Bohemia, and all that they possessed in Germany; and they have since lost Livonia, and the large plains of the Ukraine. Many a great empire has, in like manner, sunk under its own weight.

About the year 550, Leck formed a design of civilizing the Sarmatians, though he was but a Sarmatian himself. He begun with cutting down trees, and erecting himself a dwelling. Other huts were soon raised round this model; the nation, hitherto erratic, became fixed; and Gnesna, the first city of Poland, took the place of a forest. The Sarmatians seem scarce to have known what eagles were, since we are told, that from their finding several nests of these birds in the trees which were cut down upon this occasion, the eagle came to be painted upon the Polish standards. But these fierce birds make their airies only upon the tops of high rocks, and Gnesna is situated in a plain. Leck soon drew the eyes of his equals upon him, and by displaying talents fit for government,

ment, as well as action, he became their master, with the title of duke, when he might as easily have assumed that of king.

From the time of this leader, down to the present age, Poland has been successively governed by other dukes, by vaivodes, now called palatines, by kings, queens, and queen-regents, with the intervention of frequent inter-regna. These last have been little better than so many times of anarchy. The regents had always made themselves hated; the few queens there were had scarce time to shew themselves; the vaivodes have always been oppressors. Among the dukes and kings, there have been some great princes; the rest have been mere warriors or tyrants. Such will always be the fate, in a great measure, of all the nations of the world; because it is not the laws, but men, that govern.

In this long series of ages, the Poles reckon four classes of sovereigns. The heads of the three first races are Leck, Piaſt, and Jagellon; the fourth, which begins with Henry of Valois, forms a class by itself, because of the crown's passing from one family to another, without fixing in any.

In the year 750, the Poles had not yet examined the question, "Whether a woman might govern men?" It had long before been decided in the East, that women were born to obey; Venda, however, reigned in Poland, and reigned with glory. The Polish historians relate, but we are not obliged to believe them, that a German prince, named Ritiger, won by the charms of this unfeeling beauty, demanded her for his wife at the head of an army; that she offered him battle; that the German troops refused to fight in a love-quarrel; that Ritiger killed himself; and that Venda threw herself into the Vistula, that she might no more disturb the peace of her subjects. Whatever becomes of the truth of this story, it is certain, that she would have done them greater service by continuing to govern them well.

From this time, the Salic law, or rather custom of France, was adopted in Poland; for the two queens that reigned there afterwards, Hedwigia in 1382, and Anne Jagellon in 1575, were advanced to the throne only by accepting the husbands which were appointed to support them in so exalted a station. Anne Jagellon was sixty years old when she was elected, but Stephen Battori, who married her to get the crown, thought that a queen was always young.

In former ages, other ways had been laid open to arrive at royalty. In 804, the Poles, being embarrassed about the choice of a governor, offered their crown as a prize to the best runner; a practice anciently known in Greece, and which did not appear to them more singular than to annex the crown to birth. It was won by an obscure youth, who took the name of Lesko. The annals of that age say, that he retained, under the royal purple, the modesty and gentleness of his former fortune, and was fierce and audacious only when he took the field against the enemies of the state.

Almost all the Poles maintain that their crown has always been elective; but they are little interested in the decision of this question, because they enjoy the thing contended for. If it was to be decided by a series of facts for six or seven centuries, it would be given against them; since it can be shewn, that, under the two first classes, the crown constantly passed from fathers to children, except in cases of the entire extinction of the reigning family. It was not till the end of the second class, that hereditary right was abolished to make way for election. The form of government has also its revolutions. In the time of Leck it was absolute, perhaps too much so; but the nation afterwards felt its own strength, shook off the yoke of a single governor, and divided the authority between twelve vaivodes, or *generals*, with a view to weaken it. But these vaivodes, who were exalted upon the ruin of one throne, collected its shattered fragments, and formed them into twelve, which, by their mutual collisions, shook the very foundations of the state. The nation, amidst these dreadful agitations, regretted the government of a single person, without duly reflecting on what they had suffered by it. But the more prudent part sought after a man fit to govern a free people, and to restrain licentiousness, without incroaching upon liberty. Such a one was at length found in the person of Cracus, who gave his name to the city of Cracow, which he founded in the beginning of the seventh century.

The extinction of his posterity, after the first generation, put the sceptre again into the hands of the nation, who, not knowing where to bestow it, had again recourse to the vaivodes, so lately proscribed. These last completed the disorders introduced by the first. The Hungarians, who had long been under apprehensions from Poland, now resolved upon its destruction, and spread terror on all sides by a sudden invasion. The chiefs
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of the nation were hated and despised, the soldiers had no confidence in them, and the people were plunged in despair. In the midst of this confusion, an obscure man conceived a thought for saving his country: he drew the Hungarians into a narrow pass, where the greatest part of them were cut off. Przemislaus, (that was his name) became in one day the idol of his countrymen; and that wild people, who had as yet no idea of any other title to the crown but virtue, placed it upon the head of their deliverer, who wore it with equal glory and success, by the name of Lesko II.

This restoration of absolute power did not last long without a fresh concussion. Popiel II. the fourth duke from Przemislaus, deservedly drew upon himself, by his crimes, the scandal of being the last prince of his family. Leaving no children, the most ruinous anarchy succeeded. The bastards of the ducal family on one side, and the twelve palatines on the other, were employed in rending out of each other's hands the reins of government; and these two principal factions engendered a hundred more. Every individual flew to arms, and right was made to consist in force only, courage in brutal fury, and safety in murder; till the nation, weary of tearing itself in pieces, (a thing which it had not done in a more uncivilized state) saw the necessity of taking speedy refuge under the government of a single person. The candidates met at Cruswick, a village in Cujavia; where an inhabitant of that country received them in his rustic cot, entertained them with a frugal repast, and displayed a sound judgment, an honest and humane heart, abilities superior to his condition, a resolute mind, and a love for his country, which these madmen did not feel in their own breasts. Ambitious men, who themselves despair of governing, chuse rather to submit to a third person, who has not entered into the competition, than to obey a rival. In the present case, they determined in favour of virtue; and by this means repaired, in some measure, the mischiefs they had occasioned by their contests for the throne. Piaſt, therefore, was chosen king in the ninth century. The Polish historians will have it, that two angels were concerned in this event, though Poland had not, at that time, embraced Christianity. What they relate of the good government of Piaſt is supported by better proofs.

The princes of this family, who succeeded one another, continually increased their authority, which ever seemed to be more absolute than ever, under Boleslaus I.

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in the tenth century. Till this time the sovereigns of Poland had only the title of duke. Two powers, the emperor and the pope, were then contending for the right of making kings. The pope miscarried in his pretensions; and it was the emperor Otho III. who, respecting the virtues of Boleslaus, invested him with the regal dignity, in his passage through Poland. One would scarce imagine, that with this instrument of despotism, the first king of Poland laid the foundations of a republic. This hero, after having penetrated into the heart of the empire, and extended his conquests as far as the confluence of the Elbe and the Sala, where he erected three columns as monuments of his glory, after having twice subdued Russia, began at last to think seriously; and, considering on one side, that his enemies were subdued, and on the other, his subjects exhausted and ruined, and their wounds still bleeding, had the humanity to weep over his victories. Hitherto had reigned without a council; but he now created one, consisting of twelve persons of distinguished merit.

The nation, which had hitherto obeyed implicitly, now turning its eyes towards liberty, discovered with pleasure the first image of it; for this council might in time become a senate. We have seen, that the Poles had long ago abolished monarchy to make way for twelve vaivods; and this transient idea of a republic had never been entirely defaced. Though the Polish kings, after the restoration of the old constitution, had regularly succeeded one another by hereditary right, yet there still remained a persuasion, that there were circumstances in which the nation might resume the crown; and it exerted this right by deposing Miecislav III. a bad prince, in the twelfth century. Instances of this sort were repeated more than once in the thirteenth century.

A nation, which has proceeded so far as to depose its kings, has nothing to do but to chuse its materials for erecting the edifice of liberty, and time will do the rest. The banishment of Boleslaus II. after the patience of his subjects had been exhausted by his barbarous behaviour, was favourable enough for such an undertaking, there being scarce any absolute sovereign in Europe. The nobles in France, England, Sweden, Denmark, Italy, and Sicily, confined the authority of their princes within very narrow limits. The Spaniards have not this day forgot the ancient form of inaugurating their kings: "We, who are as good as you, make you our king, upon condition that you will observe our laws, otherwise not."

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The Poles too had laid some restraints on the regal power; but this power being always ready to overleap its bounds, they still thought it too extensive, for their kings made war and peace at their own pleasure.

In the fourteenth century, Casimir the Great, being impatient to put an end to a long war, made a treaty of peace, which the enemy required to be ratified by all the estates of the realm. Being assembled for this purpose, they refused their concurrence; and from this time were convinced, that it was not impossible to establish a republic, and, at the same time, to keep a king. The foundations of this constitution were laid even before the death of Casimir, who having no son, proposed his nephew, Lewis, king of Hungary, for his successor. The Poles gave their consent; but it was upon such conditions as laid heavy fetters upon absolute power. Lewis himself, in the latter part of his life, when he had no hopes of begetting an heir to the throne, pitched upon his son-in-law Sigismund to succeed him, with the approbation of the Poles, which he purchased by ceding to them fresh privileges: but the Poles were not contented with having in some measure disposed of the crown, by their consent being asked; they were resolved to strike a decisive blow, by abolishing the succession. If either of Lewis's two daughters had a right to the crown, it was undoubtedly his eldest, the princess Mary, wife to Sigismund; they therefore rejected both her and her husband, and gave the crown to Hedwigia, the younger, upon condition that she would take no husband but of their appointing.

Among the competitors that appeared on this occasion, Jagellon displayed the lustre of the crown of Lithuania, which he promised to incorporate with that of Poland. This offer was certainly considerable; but it would have been nothing if he had not subscribed to the republican form of government. Upon this condition he married Hedwigia, and was declared king.

First establishment of the republic of Poland.

A republic was now established, composed of three estates; the king, the senate, and the equestrian order. The king's portion was majesty, power fell to the senate, and liberty was the share of the equestrian order; an order including all the rest of the nobility, and which soon set up tribunes, by the name of deputies. These deputies represent the whole equestrian order in the general assemblies of the nation, called diets, and put a stop to all proceedings there, whenever they please, by their right of Veto. The commonwealth of Rome had no king,

king, but the commons were reckoned as one of its three orders, sharing the sovereign power with the senate and the knights; and the majesty of the Roman people was extolled both at home and abroad. Poland, actuated by different principles, has placed its people upon a level with the cattle that till the ground. The senate, which holds the balance between the king and liberty, can look without emotion upon the slavery of five or six millions of men, who were much happier of old when they were Sarmatians.

While the commonwealth of Poland was yet in its infancy, Jagellon seemed to forget upon what conditions he reigned. An edict issued by him was found contrary to the oath he had taken, and the new republicans hewed it in pieces with their sabres before his face. But the reign of Sigismund Augustus was the æra when the republican pride displayed itself in the haughtiest manner.

This king dying, in 1573, without children, the Poles took this opportunity of guarding their liberty with new bulwarks. They examined into their old laws, limited many, extended some, and abolished others; and after many debates, it was agreed that the kings elected by the nation should make no attempts to get their successors appointed; that they should not so much as propose any one to the state for this purpose, and consequently should never assume the title of heirs of the kingdom; that they should always have about them sixteen persons, by way of council, without whose concurrence they should neither receive foreign ministers, nor send any to other princes; that they should not levy new troops, nor order the nobility on horseback without the consent of all the orders of the republic; that they should admit no foreigners into the council of the nation, nor confer upon them any office, dignity, or starosty; and lastly, that they should not marry, without having first obtained the permission of the senate and equestrian order.

The whole interregnum was spent in contriving how to guard against what was called the encroachments of the throne. The republican language became henceforward the prevailing style in all assemblies of state. Henry of Valois was shocked at it upon his arrival in Poland, and at his coronation, in 1574. But, a few months after, the castellan of Sandomir was deputed, with five others, to notify to him his approaching deposition, if he did not more punctually discharge the duties of the throne. Soon

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after, his precipitate flight put an end to the complaints of the nation, and to his reign together.

To these spirited attacks, made at different times, it is owing that Poland has retained royalty without fearing its kings. A king of Poland, at his very coronation, and when he swears to the *Pacta Conventa*, absolves his subjects from their oath of allegiance, in case he violates the laws of the republic.

The legislative power belongs essentially to the diet, which the king is obliged to call together every two years; and in case of his failure, the republic has a right to assemble by its own authority. The little diets or dietines of every palatine precede the great one; and in these they prepare the matters that are to be discussed in the general assembly, and elect the representatives of the equestrian order, out of which is composed the chamber of deputies. The persons of these deputies, or tribunes, are held as sacred. The old castle of Warsaw, in which the kings of Poland formerly resided, is the place where the diet meets. In order to form an idea of the senate, which is the soul of this body, we must cast our eyes upon the bishops, palatines, and castellans. The two latter of these dignities are less known than the former. A palatine is the chief of the nobility within his own palatinate, presides at all their assemblies, leads them to the field of election when a king is to be chosen, and to the field of battle, when the *pospolite* is assembled, or the Polish gentlemen, in virtue of the king's summons to war. He has also a right to fix the price of commodities, and to regulate weights and measures; in short, he is a governor of a province. A castellan enjoys the same privileges within his own district, which always makes part of a palatinate; he represents the palatine in his absence. The castellans were formerly governors of the strong castles and royal cities; but these governments are now in the hands of the *starosts*, who also administer justice either in their own persons or by their deputies. The *starost* of *Samogitia* is the only one who has a seat in the senate; but there are in it two archbishops, fifteen bishops, thirty-three palatines, and eighty-five castellans, in all a hundred and thirty-six.

The ministers of state have a seat in the senate, without being senators; these are the grand-marshals, grand-chancellors, vice-chancellors, grand-treasurers of the crown and of Lithuania; with the marshals of the courts of Poland

land and Lithuania; in number ten, two of each denomination, by reason of the union of the two states. The grand-marshal is the third person in the kingdom, having only the king and the primate above him. As master of the palace he appoints ambassadors their days of audience, and exercises an almost absolute authority in the court, and for three leagues round it. He provides for the safety of the king's person, and the preservation of the public peace; he takes cognizance of all crimes within his district, and judges without appeal; nor can his sentences be reversed but by the whole body of the nation. It is also his business to assemble the senate, and keep in order those who would disturb it; for which purposes he has always a body of troops at his command. The marshal of the court can exercise no jurisdiction but in the absence of the grand-marshal. The grand-chancellor is keeper of the great-seal, as the vice-chancellor is of the privy-seal. One of them is always a bishop, with a jurisdiction in ecclesiastical matters; and all answers given in the king's name upon public occasions, must be given by one of these two officers. The grand-treasurer is entrusted with the revenue of the republic, the Poles being very careful not to leave this money at the disposal of the king. A vote of the whole nation, or at least a *senatus-consultum*, directs how it shall be employed, and the grand-treasurer is accountable to the nation only.

There is very little resemblance between these ministers and those of other courts. They are appointed indeed by the king, but the republic only can turn them out. Nevertheless, as they are connected with the crown, which is the source of all favours, and as they are men, the republic has not thought fit to allow them a deliberative vote in the senate.

The first man in the senate is the archbishop of Gnesna, commonly called the primate. By virtue of his office he is legate of the holy see, and censor of the kings of Poland; he is himself in some measure a king in every vacancy of the throne, during which he takes the name of *Interrex*; and the honours he receives are proportioned to the dignity of his station. He never exercises his censorship but with applause. If the king does not listen to his remonstrances in private, and persists in bad measures, it is in full senate, or in the diet, that the primate arms himself with all the power of the laws to reclaim him; and the mischief is generally put a stop to.

When the diet is not sitting, the springs of government are kept in motion by the senate, under the inspection of the king; but the king can neither by authority nor violence over-rule their suffrages. The liberty they possess is visible even in their outward forms; for the senators are seated in arm-chairs, and, as soon as the king is covered they follow his example. However, the decrees of the senate, when the diet is not sitting, are only provisional; but when the diet is assembled, the senate, together with the king and the chamber of deputies, has a legislative power.

The first thing done in a diet, is always to read the *Pacta Conventa*, containing the obligations which the king has entered into with his people; and if he has failed in any particular, every member of the assembly has a right to insist upon its being better observed for the future. In the other sittings, which are of six weeks continuance, the usual duration of a diet, are settled all the concerns of the nation; such as the nomination to vacant dignities, the disposal of the crown lands to such as have served long in the army with distinction, the passing the grand-treasurer's accounts, the diminution or augmentation of taxes as circumstances require, the negotiations with which the ambassadors of the republic have been entrusted, and the manner in which they have executed their commissions; the alliances to be formed or broken, the making of peace and war, the abrogating or passing laws, and the strengthening of public liberty. The last five days, called the great days, are set apart for uniting all the votes. Every decree, to have the force of a law, must be ratified by the unanimous consent of all the three orders; the opposition of a single deputy undoes every thing. This privilege is considered as the most sacred institution of the commonwealth; and a sure way of being torn in pieces would be to propose its abolition. It may sometimes do good, but, upon the whole, much more mischief. A single deputy may thus not only annul a good decree, but if he has a quarrel with all, he has nothing to do but to make a protest, and leave the assembly, and the diet is instantly dissolved. The remedy against these dissolutions is a confederacy, in which matters are decided by a majority of votes, without paying any regard to the protests of the deputies; and one confederacy is frequently formed against another. The acts of these confederacies must afterwards be ratified or annulled by a general diet. All this must needs

occasion great convulsions in the state, especially if the army comes to meddle in the dispute.

As soon as the throne is vacant, all the courts of justice and other ordinary springs of the machine of government, remain in a state of inaction, and all the authority is transferred to the primate, who, as above observed, in quality of interrex, has in some respects more power than the king himself; and yet the republic takes no umbrage at it, because he has not time to make himself formidable. He notifies the vacancy of the throne to foreign princes, which is in effect proclaiming that a crown is to be disposed of; he issues the *universalia*, or circular letters for the election; gives orders to the starosts to keep a strict guard upon the fortified places, and to the grand-generals to do the same upon the frontiers, towards which the army marches.

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The place of election is the field of Wola, at the gates of Warsaw. All the nobles of the kingdom have a right of voting. The Poles encamp on the left side of the Vistula, and the Lithuanians on the right, each under the banners of their respective palatinates, which makes a sort of civil army, consisting of between a hundred and fifty and two hundred thousand men, assembled to exercise the highest act of freedom. Those who are not able to provide a horse and a sabre, stand behind on foot, armed with scythes, and do not seem at all less proud than the rest, as they have the same right of voting.

The field of election is surrounded by a ditch, with three gates, in order to avoid confusion, one to the east for Great Poland, another to the south for Little Poland, and a third to the west for Lithuania. In the middle of the field, which is called Kolau, is erected a great building of wood, named the *szopa*, or hall for the senate, at whose debates the deputies are present, and carry the result of them to the several palatinates. The part which the marshal acts upon this occasion is still more important than in ordinary diets; for, being the mouth of the nobility, he has it in his power to do great service to the candidates; he is also to draw up the instrument of election, and the king elect must take it only from his hand.

It is prohibited, upon pain of being declared a public enemy, to appear at the election with regular troops, in order to avoid all violence. But the nobles, who are always armed with pistols and sabres, commit violence against one another, at the time that they cry out "liberty!"

All who aspire openly to the crown are expressly excluded from the field of election, that their presence may not constrain the voters. The king must be elected *ne-nine* contradicente, by all the suffrages without exception. The law is founded upon this principle, that when a great family adopts a father, all the children have a right to be pleased. The idea is plausible in speculation; but if it was rigorously kept to, Poland could have no such thing as a lawful king. They therefore give up a real unanimity, and content themselves with the appearance of it; or rather, if the law, which prescribes it, cannot be fulfilled by means of money, they call in the assistance of the sabre.

Before they come to this extremity, no election can possibly be carried on with more order, decency, and appearance of freedom. The primate, in few words, recapitulates to the nobles on horseback, the respective merit of the candidates, which has already been examined in the dietines; he exhorts them to chuse the most worthy, invokes heaven, gives his blessing to the assembly, and remains alone with the marshal of the diet, while the senators disperse themselves into the several palatinates, to promote an unanimity of sentiments. If they succeed, the primate goes himself to collect the votes, naming once more all the candidates. "Szoda," answer the nobles, "That is the man we chuse," and instantly the air resounds with his name, with cries of vivat, and the noise of pistols. If all the palatines agree in their nominations, the primate gets on horseback, and then the profoundest silence succeeding to the greatest noise, he asks three times if all are satisfied; and after a general approbation, three times proclaims the king; and the grand-marshal of the crown repeats the proclamation three times at the three gates of the camp. How glorious a king this, if endued with royal qualities! and how incontestable his title in the suffrages of a whole people!

This sketch of a free and peaceable election is by no means a representation of what usually happens. The corruption of the great, the fury of the people, intrigues and factions, the gold and the arms of foreign powers, frequently fill the scene with violence and blood.

*Military
establishment of the
Poles*

The nobility having seized the reins of government with all the honours and emoluments of the state, have thought themselves obliged to defend it too, and to leave all the rest of the nation to cultivate the lands. Poland is at present the only country in the world whose whole cavalry is made

made up of gentlemen, of which the grand duchy of Lithuania furnishes a fourth part ; and in this cavalry consists the chief strength of the state, for the infantry is scarce reckoned as any thing. This army, or rather these two armies, the Polish and the Lithuanian, have each their grand-general, independent of one another. It has been already observed, that the office of grand-marshal is first in dignity after the primacy ; but the grand-general is superior in power, being unconfined by almost any bounds but what he prescribes to himself ; and this great authority is suspended only when the king commands in person. The two armies have also each of them a general, whose functions are confined to the field, called the petty-general, who has no authority but what the grand-general chuses to give him, and who supplies his absence. A third officer of note is the stragenik, who commands the van. There is also kept up in Poland a third body of troops, consisting of foot and dragoons, the institution of which is of no great antiquity. It is called the foreign army, and made up almost entirely of Germans. When the whole is complete, which seldom happens, the ordinary defence of Poland is about forty-eight thousand men. A fourth army, the most numerous and the most useless of all, is the *pospolite*. In case of necessity, more than one hundred and fifty thousand gentlemen would mount their horses, in order to submit only to such discipline as they liked ; to mutiny, if they were detained more than a fortnight in the place appointed them to meet in, without marching ; and to refuse to serve, if it should be necessary to pass the frontiers. Another mischief is, that the two bodies of troops which are its ordinary defence, the Polish army and the Lithuanian, being commanded by two grand-generals, independent of each other, are without that principle of union which makes forces act in concert. It has happened more than once, that when one has marched, the other has halted ; they have even been known to threaten each other.

The Poles are born soldiers ; and though they resemble their ancestors, the Sarmatians, much less than the Tartars do theirs, yet there are still remaining among them some Sarmatian features. For instance, they are frank and haughty ; which last quality is natural enough in a gentleman who elects his own king, and may come to have that honour himself. They are also extremely passionate, affairs being often decided sword in hand by the representatives, in their national assemblies. Hospitality

*Character
of the
Poles.*

is a virtue much cultivated among them, and was learnt from the Turks and Tartars. The Poles are brave, robust, and inured to cold and fatigue; but they have departed from the simplicity and frugality of the Sarmatians. To the very end of the reign of Sobieski, a few wooden chairs, a bear's skin, a pair of pistols, and two boards covered with a matras, was all the household furniture of a nobleman in decent circumstances; and a suit of furs was his dress. Luxury began to get footing under Augustus II. and the French fashions, already adopted in Germany, were added to the magnificence of the East, which displays itself more in pomp than elegance. The Poles love money, but not with a view of hoarding. Their stateliness is such, that a woman of quality never stirs abroad but in a coach and six, though it were only to cross a street. These women, however, are far from being delicate. They mix with the men in competitions at public games, in hunting, and the pleasures of the table; and frequently take a journey of one or two hundred leagues in a sledge, without any apprehensions about inconvenient lodgings, or the badness of the roads.

Persons who travel in Poland find that good morals are of more value than good laws. The number of forests, the distance of habitations, the custom of travelling by night as well as by day, the negligence of the starosts, with regard to the safety of the roads, all contribute to favour robbery and murder, and yet an instance of either is scarce known in ten years.

The extremes of liberty and slavery seem to be contending which shall ruin Poland. The nobility can do whatever they please; and the body of the nation groans in servitude. Wherever the great have tyrannically trampled upon the people, the latter have revenged themselves by giving up their oppressors into the hands of an absolute monarch. That all men are born upon a footing of equality is a truth which will never be eradicated from the human mind; and if an inequality of condition is become necessary, it must be alleviated by the enjoyment of natural liberty, and equal laws. A Polish noble, whatever crime he has committed, cannot be taken into custody, till he has been condemned in an assembly of all the states of the realm; which is, in effect, furnishing him with all imaginable means to escape; but, whoever is not nobly born, is a mere cypher in the city, or a slave in the country; and it is certain, that every state is undone where the plebeian has no possibility of rising, but by overturning the

the whole constitution. In consequence of the slavery of the people, Poland has very few artificers or tradesmen. In all their wars, they are forced to hire foreign engineers; there is no such thing among them as a school for painting; architecture is yet in its infancy; and theatrical entertainments they have none. They write history without taste, know little of the mathematics, and less of true philosophy; they have no public building of any note, and not one great city in all the kingdom; even Warsaw does not contain sixty thousand souls.

But we must except Dantzic, and some other trading towns, which are distinct republics, and governed by their respective magistrates; the duchy of Courland is besides reckoned a province of Poland, but the Courlanders elect their own princes, and are governed by their own laws. They are influenced however in their choice, either by the Poles or the Russians, and the latter seem to have the greatest influence on them at present by reinstating John Ernest Biron, duke of Courland and Semigallia, in exclusion of prince Charles of Saxony, who was elected to that dignity, in September, 1758. As to Ducal Prussia, reputed another province of this kingdom, the crown of Poland acknowledged it to be independent in 1663, upon condition that it should revert to it on failure of male issue. The elector of Brandenburg, Frederic III. duke of Prussia, first assumed the style of king of this country in 1700.

*Dantzic,
Courland,
Ducal
Prussia.*

We have mentioned the chief dukes and kings of Poland as far as the æra of the establishment of the republic, and as far as Henry of Valois, who abdicated the crown of Poland on succeeding to that of France. Stephen Batori, prince of Transylvania, was elected in his room, in 1575. He made it a rule with himself to dispose of all honours and employments according to merit. He reformed the manifold abuses which had crept into the administration of justice; maintained peace within the kingdom, and kept in awe the Tartars, Muscovites, and Cossacs. His reign lasted ten years, a space long enough for his own glory, but too short for the good of the republic. Sigismund III. prince of Sweden, succeeded him in the throne, but did not supply his place, having neither the same great qualities, nor the same good fortune. He lost an hereditary kingdom to gain an elective one. His sons, Uladislaus VII. and Casimir V. both succeeded him. The first, who ascended the throne in 1692, invaded Russia, and took the capital city of Moscow, obliging the Russians to cede the province of Smolensko to Poland. He

*Kings of
Poland to
the present
time.*

spent the sixteen years of his reign in acquiring the love of his subjects. The second, from a Jesuit became a cardinal, and from a cardinal a king. In his reign, Charles Gustavus king of Sweden, in one year (1655,) made an entire conquest of Poland, and Casimir fled into Silesia; but the Swedes retiring next year, Casimir was restored; whereupon he entertained German forces to secure his possession; but the Poles apprehending he intended to make himself absolute, deposed him. He retired into France and became abbot of St. Germain. Michael Wiefnowieski was next elected, in 1670. In his reign the Turks conquered the province of Podolia, and besieged Leopold; but compelling the Poles to pay them an annual tribute, they abandoned Leopold. A new war breaking out, John Sobieski, the crown-general, gained a great victory over the Turks; but the Poles refusing to keep the field any longer, he obtained no great fruits of his victory. King Michael dying in 1674, the Poles elected John Sobieski their king, in regard of his services against the Turks. This is the illustrious Sobieski, a name revered to this day in Poland, who joined the duke of Lorrain, the imperial general, when the Turks besieged Vienna, in 1683, and obtained that decisive victory, which compelled the infidels to abandon Hungary not long after. On his death, Frederic Augustus, elector of Saxony, was chosen king of Poland in 1698, in opposition to the prince of Conti, who was proclaimed king by the French faction, but obliged to retire into France. The year following, at a treaty between the Turks, and the Germans and Poles, at Carlowitz, the Turks restored Podolia with its capital Kaminiack, to Poland. King Augustus, in 1700, having entered into a confederacy with the Danes, Russians, and Brandenburgers, against Charles XII. king of Sweden, was defeated in several battles by the Swedes, who deposed him, and advanced Stanislaus Leszczinski to the throne of Poland, in 1704. King Stanislaus remained on the throne of Poland till the year 1709, when Charles XII. being defeated by the Russians at Pultowa, and obliged to take refuge in Turkey, king Augustus re-ascended the throne of Poland, though he had sworn not to disturb Stanislaus in the possession of it. Dying in 1733, his son Augustus III. was advanced to the throne of Poland, by the interest of the Austrians and Russians, though the French faction had proclaimed king Stanislaus, who retiring to Dantzic, was besieged in that city by the Saxons and Russians, and escaping from thence, retired into France: whereupon his

party

party submitted and swore allegiance to king Augustus, who died in October, 1763. This prince did not seem to be much in the affection of the Poles; for though the king of Prussia had, in the late war, plundered Saxony, and taken the capital city of Dresden, which he kept possession of for some time, the Poles made not the least motion in his defence. On the 6th of September, 1764, the ceremony of the election of count Stanislaus Poniatowski to the throne of Poland, passed with the most perfect unanimity of the suffrages of the whole nation, delivered by the different palatinates assembled for that purpose; and the next day he was proclaimed by the name of Stanislaus Augustus, and conducted to the court and palace through the acclamations of several thousands of spectators.

S E C T. XI.

Of the Russian Dominions in Europe.

THE empire of Russia is the most extensive in the world. It measures from west to east upwards of two thousand common leagues, and upwards of eight hundred from south to north, in its greatest breadth; it borders upon Poland and the Frozen Sea; it touches Sweden and China; its length, from the isle of Dago, to the west of Livonia, as far as its most eastern boundaries, comprehends near 170 deg. so that, when it is noon in, the west, it is near midnight in the east of the empire. What is now comprehended under the name of Russia, is much larger than all the rest of Europe, than the Roman empire ever was, or that of Darius conquered by Alexander; for it contains more than one million one hundred thousand square leagues. The Roman empire and that of Alexander contained each but five hundred and fifty thousand; and there is not a kingdom in Europe that makes a twelfth part of the Roman empire. Length of time, and czars, such as Peter the Great, are still required for making Russia as populous as more southern countries.

Extent and boundaries of the empire of Russia.

The Russian empire is now divided into sixteen great governments, of which several contain immense provinces.

The nearest province to us is that of Livonia. It is one of the most fertile of the north. Its inhabitants were pagans in the twelfth century. Some merchants of Bremen and Lubec traded there; and the knights of the Teutonic

Livonia.

Teutonic order seized upon it in the thirteenth century, and kept their ground, till Albert, margrave of Brandenburg, grand-master of these conquering knights, made himself master of Livonia and Brandenburg-Prussia, about the year 1514. The Russians and Poles then began to contest the right to that province. The Swedes soon after entered it. All these powers ravaged it for a long time. It was conquered by Gustavus Adolphus, and ceded to Sweden, in 1660, by the famous peace of Oliva. Lastly, the czar Peter conquered it from the Swedes.

*Government of Re-
vel, Pe-
tersburg,
and Wi-
burg.*

Farther north is the government of Revel and Esthonia. Revel was built by the Danes in the thirteenth century. The Swedes possessed Esthonia since the country put itself under their protection in 1561. This is also one of Peter's conquests. On the borders of Esthonia is the gulf of Finland. Eastward of this sea, and at the junction of the Neva and the lake of Ladoga, Petersburg, the newest and finest city of the empire, was built by the czar Peter, notwithstanding all the obstacles that opposed its foundation. It rises on the gulf of Cronstadt, in the midst of nine branches of rivers, which divide its quarters. An impregnable castle occupies the centre of the city, in an isle formed by the great current of the Neva. Seven canals, formed out of the rivers, wash the walls of a palace, those of the admiralty, and of the yards for ship-building and several manufactures. Thirty-five great churches are so many ornaments to the city; five of which, as an example of toleration to other nations, are allotted to foreigners, whether Catholics or reformed. There are five palaces; the old one called the summer-palace, situated on the river Neva, is inclosed by an immense balustrade of fine stone all along the shore. The new summer-palace, near the triumphal arch, is one of the finest pieces of architecture in Europe. The buildings raised for the admiralty, the corps of cadets, the imperial colleges, the academy of sciences, the exchange, the merchants warehouse, and that of the galleys, are all magnificent monuments. The police, or mansion-house, that of the public pharmacy, where all the vessels are of porcelain, the court-warehouse, the foundery, the arsenal, the bridges, the market-places, the squares, the lodges for the horse and foot-guards, contribute equally to the embellishment and security of the city. It is computed that there are actually four hundred thousand souls in it. In the environs are pleasure-houses, which may justly astonish travellers by their magnificence; of one in particular the
jetée d'eau

jette d'eaus and cascades are much superior to those of Versailles. There was nothing here in 1702: the place was an impassable marsh. Petersburg is reputed the capital of Ingria, a small province conquered by Peter the Great. Wiburg also conquered by him, and the part of Finland lost and ceded by Sweden in 1742, make another government.

Higher up to the north is the province of Archangel, a *Archangel.* country entirely new to the southern nations of Europe. It had its name from St. Michael, the archangel, under whose protection it was put, long after the Russians had embraced Christianity, which they did not till the beginning of the eleventh century. It was not till the middle of the sixteenth that this country was known by other nations. The English, in 1533, seeking a passage through the north and east seas to the East Indies, discovered the port of Archangel in the White Sea. In this desert there was only a convent, with the little church of St. Michael the Archangel. From this port, having ascended the river Duina, they arrived in the midst of the country, and at last at the city of Moscow. They easily made themselves masters of the commerce of Russia, which, from the city of Novogorod, where it was carried on by land, was transferred to this sea-port. It is, indeed, inaccessible seven months of the year; however, it was of much greater utility than the fairs of the great Novogorod, which sensibly decayed by the wars against Sweden. The English obtained the privilege of trading there without paying any duty, and it is so all nations ought, perhaps, to trade together. The Dutch soon shared with them the commerce of Archangel. Long before this the Genoese and Venetians had settled a trade with the Russians by the mouth of the Tanais, where they built a town called Tana: but, since the ravages of Tamerlane in this part of the world, this Italian branch of trade has been destroyed. That of Archangel subsisted with great advantages to the English and Dutch, till Peter the Great opened the Baltic to his states.

Russian Lapland, the third part of that country the two others belonging to Sweden and Denmark, lies to the west of Archangel. It is a very large tract, taking up about eight degrees of longitude, and extending in latitude from the polar circle to Cape North. The inhabitants were confusedly known to antiquity by the name of Troglodytes, and septentrional pygmies. This appellation suited indeed men living in caverns, and generally not more than three cubits high. They are such as they were then, of a tan-colour

*Russian
Lapland,
in the go-
vernment
of Arch-
angel.*

colour though the other northern people are white; almost all diminutive, whilst their neighbours, and the people of Iceland, under the polar circle, are of high stature. They seem made for their mountainous country; nimble, well-set, robust; their skin hard, the better to resist cold; their thighs and legs thin and small; their feet little, to skip and clamber with greater facility over the rocks their whole country is covered with; yet they are passionate lovers of this country, which they alone can be fond of, not being able to live elsewhere. All these particulars shew, that the Laplanders are indigenes as well as their animals, and that nature has made them for one another. The inhabitants of Finland and Swedish Lapland adored formerly an idol they called Jumalac; and since the time of Gustavus Adolphus, to whom they are indebted for the name of Lutherans, they call Jesus Christ the son of Jumalac. The Muscovite Laplanders are now reckoned to belong to the Greek church; but those who lead a vagabond life towards the mountains of Cape North, content themselves with adoring a God under some gross forms. This kind of men, few in number, have also few ideas, and they are happy in not having more, as then they must have new wants which they could not satisfy; they live contented, and to a great age, without sickness, scarce drinking any other liquor but water in the coldest climate.

Moscow.

In going up the Duina, from north to south, one arrives in the midst of the country about Moscow, the capital of the empire. This city was for a long time the centre of the Russian states, before they were extended towards China and Persia. Moscow, situated in $55\frac{1}{2}$ deg. of latitude, in a soil less cold and more fertile than Petersburg, lies in the middle of a large and beautiful plain, on the river Moskwa, and two other small ones, that empty themselves with it into the Occa, and afterwards increase the Wolga. This city, in the thirteenth century, was only an assemblage of huts, peopled with the wretches oppressed by the race of Gengis-kan. The Cremelin, which was the residence of the grand-dukes, was not built till the fourteenth century. Some Italian architects had the conducting of it; the taste was Gothic; the same then prevailed throughout Europe, as well for palaces as churches. The earl of Carlisle, ambassador from our king Charles II. in 1663, to the czar Alexis, complains, in his relation, that he neither found any conveniency of life in Moscow, nor inn on the road, nor assistance of any kind. He was disgusted to see that the greater part of the boyards

boyards had no other beds than planks, or benches, on which a skin, or some other covering was laid; this was the ancient custom of all people; the houses, almost all of wood, were without furniture, the dining-tables without linen, no pavement in the streets, nothing agreeable and convenient, very few artizans, and these bungling ones, and only labouring at works of necessity. This people would have appeared Spartans had they been sober. But the court, on days of ceremony, appeared like that of a king of Persia. The earl of Carlisle says, that he saw the czars and his courtiers robes covered with gold and precious stones. These cloaths were not manufactured in the country; however, it was evident, that the people were capable of being made industrious, since they had cast at Moscow, long before, in the reign of the czar Boris Godono, the largest bell that is in Europe, and could produce, in the patriarchal church, some silver ornaments, which were not wrought without great pains. These works, conducted by Germans and Italians, were transitory efforts; it is industry, and the multitude of arts continually put in practice, that make a nation flourishing. Poland then, and other neighbouring countries, were not superior to the Russians. Manual arts were not brought to greater perfection in the north of Germany, and the politer arts were scarce better known there in the middle of the seventeenth century. Though Moscow had nothing then of the magnificence and arts of our great cities in Europe, yet its circumference of twenty thousand paces; the part called the Chinese town, where the curiosities of China were exposed to sale; the spacious quarter of the czar's palace; some gilt domes and lofty towers of a singular construction; in short, the number of inhabitants, amounting to near five hundred thousand; all this made Moscow one of the most considerable cities of the world. Theodore, or Fædor, Peter the Great's eldest brother, began to police Moscow; he had several large houses built of stone, though without any regular architecture; he encouraged his principal courtiers to build, advancing them money, and furnishing them with materials. It is to him the Russians are indebted for the first breed of fine horses, and some useful establishments. Peter, who did all, took care of Moscow, whilst he was building Petersburg; he had it paved, and adorned and enriched it with edifices and manufactures; and lastly, within these few years, M. de Showalow, chamberlain to the late empress Elizabeth, has had the honour of founding in it an university.

Smolensko.

To the west of the duchy of Moscow is that of Smolensko, part of the ancient European Sarmatia. The duchies of Muscovy and Smolensko, composed White Russia, properly so called. Smolensko, which belonged first to the grand dukes of Russia, was conquered by the grand-duke of Lithuania, in the beginning of the fifteenth century, and retaken by its former masters a hundred years after. Sigismund III. king of Poland, seized upon it in 1611. The czar Alexis, Peter's father, recovered it in 1654, and since this time it always made a part of the Russian empire.

*Govern-
ment of No-
vgorod
and Kiovia
or Ukrain.*

The province of Novogorod lies between Petersburg and Smolensko. It is said, that in this country was the first settlement of the ancient Sclavonians, whose language extended throughout the north-east of Europe; they built the city of Great Novogorod, situate on a navigable river from its source. This city long enjoyed a flourishing commerce, and was a powerful ally of the Hanse Towns. The czar Ivan Basilowitz conquered it in 1467; and brought away with him all its riches, which contributed to the magnificence of the court of Moscow, almost unknown till then.

To the south of the province of Smolensko lies that of Kiovia, which is the Little Russia, the Red Russia, or the Ukrain, crossed by the Dnieper, which the Greeks call Boristhenes. The difference of these two names, the one hard to be pronounced, the other melodious, serves to shew, with a hundred other proofs, the harshness of the northern dialects, compared with the graces of the Greek tongue. The capital, Kiow, formerly Kisovia, was built by the emperors of Constantinople, who made a colony of it. Some Greek inscriptions, of one thousand two hundred years standing, are still to be seen there. It is the only town of antiquity in these countries, where men have lived so many ages without building walls. There also the grand-dukes of Russia resided in the eleventh century, before the Tartars sub-
jected Russia.

The Ukrainians, called Cossacs, are a collected body of ancient Roxelans, Sarmatians, and Tartars. This country made part of the ancient Scythia. Nature seems lavish in it of her favours to men; but the men have not seconded nature, living upon fruits produced by a land equally uncultivated and fertile, and living still more upon rapine;

rapine; fond to an excess of a happiness preferable to all things, liberty; and yet having served, by turns Poland and Turkey. They gave themselves up lastly to Russia, in 1654; and, though not disposed to be entirely subject, Peter made them so. The other nations are distinguished by their towns and villages, and divided into ten districts; a chief called hetman, was elected by a plurality of votes to govern them, but without supreme power. It is now a lord of the court the Russian sovereigns send them for hetman, whose power resembles that of a governor of certain states, which still retain some privileges. At first, the inhabitants of the country were all Pagans and Mohammedans; they were baptized Christians of the church of Rome when they served Poland; and now, since they belonged to Russia, are baptized Christians of the Greek church. Among them are comprehended those Zaporavian Cossacks, who, in some measure, are such enterprising courageous robbers, as were formerly the freebooters. What distinguishes them from all other people is, that they never suffer women in their habitations, as it is pretended the Amazons did not suffer men. The women that serve them for population dwell in other isles of the river. There is no marriage, no family among them: they enlist the males in their militia, and leave the females to their mothers. The brother has often children by his sister, and the father by his daughter. No other laws subsist among them but customs, established by necessity; however, they have some priests of the Greek church. Not long since the fort St. Elizabeth has been built on the Boristhenes, to restrain and keep them within bounds. They serve in the Russian army as irregular troops, and behave like Tartars to those that fall into their hands.

In going up to the north-east of the province of Kiovia, between the Boristhenes and Tanais, you find the government of Belgorod, as extensive as that of Kiovia. It is one of the most fertile provinces of Russia, furnishing Poland with prodigious numbers of large cattle, known by the name of Ukraine oxen. These two provinces are secure from the incursions of the Little Tartars, by lines extending from the Boristhenes to the Tanais, and defended by forts and redoubts. Going still farther north, and passing the Tanais, you enter the government of Veronise, which extends to the Palus Mæotis. It was near the capital, called Veronesteh, at the mouth of the river of the same name, that Peter the Great had his first

*Government of
Belgorod,
Veronise,
and Nisch-
gorod.*

fleet built; an enterprize which none had a notion of before, throughout those vast states. The government of Nischgorod, fertile in corn, and watered by the Volga, is the next that presents itself.

These are all the Russian territories in Europe; those in Asia have been already treated of.

*State of
Russia be-
fore Peter
the Great.*

It is very probable, that Russia had been much more populous than at present, in the time when the small-pox from the heart of Arabia, and the other from America, had not yet ravaged these climates, where they have taken root. These two plagues, whereby the world is more depopulated than by war, have been introduced, the one by Mohammed, the other by Columbus. The original pestilence of Africa rarely infected the countries of the North. In short, the people of the North, from the Sarmatians to the Tartars beyond the Great Wall, having overwhelmed the world with their irruptions, this ancient seminary of men must have been strangely diminished.

The customs, modes of dress, and manners of Russia, were always more in imitation of Asia than Christian Europe: such was the ancient custom of receiving the people's tribute in commodities, and of defraying the expences of ambassadors on their route, and during their residence. The long gown on days of ceremony seemed more noble than the short garb of the western nations of Europe. A tunic, lined with furs, a long sizar, enriched with precious stones on solemn days, and the sort of high turbans that raise the stature, were a more agreeable spectacle than close coats and perukes, and also better suited cold climates; but this ancient manner of clothing of all nations seems less adapted to war, and less commodious for labour. The far greater part of their other customs were gross and rustic; but we must not imagine that their manners were as barbarous as represented by many writers.

The Russian government resembled that of the Turks, by the militia or strelitz, which, like that of the janissaries, sometimes disposed of the throne, and troubled the state almost always as much as they supported it. These strelitz were to the number of forty thousand men. Such of them as were dispersed in the provinces subsisted by robbery; those of Moscow lived as citizens, traded, but were in no subjection, and carried their excesses to insolence.

The state did not possess five millions of rubles. This revenue was sufficient when Peter came to the crown, for

for keeping within the bounds of the ancient frugality; but it was not the third part of what was necessary for making a considerable figure in Europe.

The religion of the state was, ever since the eleventh century, that which is called the Greek, in opposition to the Latin; but there were more Mohammedan and Pagan countries than Christian. Siberia, as far as China, was idolatrous; and in more than one province, all kind of religion was unknown. It is pretended that a princess, by name Olha, introduced it, towards the close of the tenth century. She was baptized at Constantinople, and called Helen. Her example did not at first make a great number of proselytes. Her son Sowastossaw, who reigned a long time, was not of the same way of thinking; but her grandson Volodimer, born of a concubine, having assassinated his brother, to reign in his place, and having fought for the alliance of the emperor Basil, of Constantinople, did not obtain it but on condition of being baptized. It is at this epocha, of the year 987, that the Greek religion began in effect to be established in Russia. The patriarch Photius, so famous for his immense erudition, his disputes with the Roman church, and his misfortunes, sent proper persons with a commission to baptize Volodimer, in order to add that part of the world to his patriarchate. Volodimer finished therefore the work begun by his grandmother. A Greek was the first metropolitan or patriarch of Russia; and hence it is, that the Russians have adopted in their language, which is the Slavonian, an alphabet taken partly from the Greek. These superior prelates soon after their institution, would fain share the authority with the czars. It was reputed a small matter that the sovereign walked bare-headed once a year before the patriarch, leading his horse by the bridle. This exterior respect served only to irritate their thirst after power; but this mad temper for affecting and exerting power occasioned great troubles here as well as elsewhere.

Russia, which is entirely indebted to Peter the Great for its influence on the affairs of Europe, had none, since it embraced Christianity, till his time. In the reign of Heraclius, and sometimes after, it was seen to arm on the Black Sea forty thousand small barks, and appear before Constantinople to besiege it, and impose a tribute on the Greek Cæsars. But Volodimer, taken up with the care of introducing Christianity, and perplexed by the intestine troubles of his family, weakened still

more his states by dividing them among his children. They almost all became a prey to the Tartars, who, during two hundred years, kept Russia in subjection. Ivan Basilides delivered and aggrandized it; but after his reign civil wars brought it to ruin.

Before Peter the Great, Russia wanted much of being as powerful, of having as many lands cultivated, as many subjects, as great revenues, as in our days. It possessed nothing in Finland, nothing in Livonia; and Livonia alone is worth more than all Siberia was for a long time. The Cossacks were not properly subjected; the people of Astracan obeyed but indifferently; and the little commerce carried on was scarce attended with any advantage. The White Sea, the Baltic, the Euxine, that of Asoph, and the Caspian, were entirely useless to a nation that had not one ship, and even wanted a term in its language to express a fleet. If nothing more was wanting than to be superior to the Tartars, and the people of the North, Russia enjoyed that advantage; but it was necessary to equal polished nations, and to be some time or other in a condition to surpass several. Such an enterprize appeared impracticable, because it had not one ship on the seas, was absolutely ignorant of military discipline by land, did scarce encourage the most simple manufactures, and even neglected agriculture, the primum mobile of all. Attention and encouragement are great requisites to well-governing.

This want of cultivating the necessary arts shews sufficiently that the Russians had not an idea of the politer, which become necessary in their turn, when all the rest are had. They might have sent some natives of the country for information among strangers; but the difference of language, manners, and religion were against it; a law also of state and religion, equally sacred and pernicious, forbid the Russians to go out of their country, and seemed to condemn them to eternal ignorance. They possessed the largest states of the universe, and every thing was to be done in them. In short, Peter was born, and Russia was formed.

Peter's family was on the throne since the year 1613. Russia before this time had experienced revolutions, which still kept a reformation and arts at a distance. Such is the fate of all human societies. There were never worse troubles in any kingdom. The tyrant Boris Godonow had assassinated, in 1597, the lawful heir Demetrius, and usurped the empire. A young monk assumed the name

of Demetrius, pretended to be the prince that escaped out of the hands of the assassins, and assisted by the Poles, and a great party which tyrants have always against them, expelled the usurper, and usurped himself the crown. His imposture was discovered as soon as he became master, and the people being dissatisfied with him, he was put to death. Three other spurious Demetrius's successively started up. This series of impostures supposed a country over-run with disorders; the less men are civilized, the more easy it is to impose upon them. The Poles, who began the revolution, by setting up the first pretended Demetrius, were on the point of reigning in Russia. The Swedes divided the spoil on the side of Finland, and pretended also to the throne. The state was threatened with entire ruin.

In the midst of these calamities, an assembly composed of the principal Boyards elected for sovereign in 1613, a youth of fifteen years of age. This did not seem to be a sure means of putting an end to the troubles. The name of this youth was Michael Romanow; he was grandfather of the czar Peter, and son of the archbishop of Rostow, surnamed Philaretes, and of a nun, related by the mother's side to the former czars. This archbishop was a powerful lord, and was forced by the tyrant Boris to become a priest; his wife Sheremeto was also obliged to take the veil; such was the ancient custom of the western Christian Latin tyrants; that of the Greek Christians was putting out the eyes. The tyrant Demetrius conferred the archbishoprick of Rostow on Philaretes, and sent him ambassador into Poland. The Poles, then at war with the Russians, imprisoned him, contrary to the law of nations, which indeed all these people were ignorant of. It was during his detention that the young Romanow, his son, was elected czar. The father was exchanged for some Polish prisoners, and the young czar created him patriarch; in short, he became the real sovereign under the name of his son.

*Family of
Peter the
Great.*

If such a government may appear singular to strangers, what will they think of the czar Michael Romanow's marriage? The Russian monarchs did not seek out for wives in other states since the year 1490. It seems, that after they were possessed of Casan and Astracan, they followed in almost all particulars the Asiatic customs, especially that of inter-marrying only with their subjects. What still more resembles the customs of ancient Asia is, that, to marry a czar, the most beautiful young women of the

provinces were brought to court; the great mistress of the court received them into her apartments, lodged them separately, and made them all eat together; the czar saw them, either under a borrowed name, or without disguise. The wedding-day was fixed, though the choice was not yet known; and on that day, a wedding-garment was presented to her on whom the secret choice had fallen; other clothes were distributed to the pretenders, who returned home. It was in this manner that Michael Romanow married Eudoxia, the daughter of a poor gentleman, called Streshnew. He was cultivating his lands himself, with his domestics, when the chamberlains, sent by the czar with presents, informed him that his daughter was on the throne. The name of this princess is still dear to Russia. All this is foreign to our manners, and yet is not less respectable.

It is necessary to say, that before the election of Romanow, a considerable party had elected the prince Ladislaus, son of Sigismund III. king of Poland. The neighbouring provinces to Sweden had offered the crown to a brother of Gustavus Adolphus. Thus Russia was in the same situation Poland has often been in, where the right of electing a monarch proves generally the source of civil wars. But the Russians did not imitate the Poles, who make a contract with the king they elect. Though they had experienced the fatal effects of tyranny, they submitted to a young man without requiring any thing of him.

Russia was never an elective kingdom; but the male line of the ancient sovereigns having failed, and six czars, or pretenders, having perished unfortunately in the late troubles, there was a necessity for electing a monarch. This election caused new wars with Poland and Sweden, which fought for their pretended rights to the throne of Russia. Such rights, of governing a nation against its will, never subsist for any long time. The Poles, on one side, after pillaging the country as far as Moscow, which was the way of conducting military expeditions in those days, concluded a truce of fourteen years. Poland, by this truce, remained in possession of the duchy of Smolensko, where the Boristhenes has its source. The Swedes, having made peace also, remained possessed of Ingria, and deprived the Russians of all communication with the Baltic; so that this empire remained more than ever separated from the rest of Europe.

Michael

Michael Romanow reigned quiet after this peace, but made no change in his states that either corrupted or perfected the administration. After his death, which happened in 1645, his son, Alexis Michaelowicz, or the son of Michael, about sixteen years of age, reigned by hereditary right. He married as his father, and chose the most amiable among the maidens brought to him. His reign was troubled by bloody and furious seditions, by intestine and foreign wars. It was he, however, who first digested a code of laws, though imperfect; he introduced manufactures of linen and silk; he peopled the deserts about the Wolga and Kama with Lithuanian, Polish, and Tartar families, taken in his wars. All prisoners, before his time, were the slaves of those into whose hands they fell; Alexis made them husbandmen; he established military discipline in his armies as much as he possibly could. In fine, he was worthy of being the father of Peter the Great; but he had not time to perfect any of his undertakings; an untimely death cut him off at the age of forty-six, in the beginning of the year 1677.

After Alexis, son of Michael, all fell again into confusion. He left, by his first marriage, two princes and six princesses. The eldest, Fœdor, ascended the throne at the age of fifteen. He was a prince of a weak and sickly constitution; but his merit was uninfluenced by his bodily infirmities. Alexis, his father, had him acknowledged for his successor the year before he died. The second son, Ivan, or John, was still worse used by nature than his brother Fœdor, being almost deprived of sight and speech, as well as health, and often seized with convulsions. Of the six daughters born of this marriage, the only one famous in Europe was the princess Sophia, distinguished by the talents of her mind, but unhappily still better known by her evil designs on Peter the Great. Alexis, by his second marriage with another of his subjects, the daughter of the boyard Nariskin, left Peter and the princess Nathalia. Peter, born the 10th of June, new style, was but four years old when he lost his father. The children of the second marriage were not beloved, and it was little expected that Peter would ever reign.

The genius of the Romanow family was always bent upon policing the state; such was likewise the character of Fœdor. But the war he was engaged in with the Turks, or rather with the Crim-Tartars, which continued with an equality of success, did not permit a prince of such an ill state of health to think of accomplishing so

great a work. Observing, before his death, that his brother Ivan, too much disgraced by nature, was incapable of reigning, he nominated for heir of the Russia's, his second brother Peter, who was then only ten years old, but gave great hopes of extraordinary abilities. As to his sisters, if the custom of raising subjects to the rank of czarina was favourable to their sex, there was another that leaned hard on them. The daughters of the czars were then seldom married; most of them spent their lives in a monastery. However, Sophia, the third of the czar Alexis's daughters, by his first marriage, a princess of a wit equally superior and dangerous, having seen that her brother Fœdor had but a little time to live, did not embrace the party of a convent, but finding herself between her two other brothers, who could not govern, the one by his incapacity, the other by his childhood, conceived the design of putting herself at the head of the empire.

Fœdor was therefore scarce expired, when having secured in her interest the corps of the strelitz by bribes, and promises of an augmentation of pay and presents, she convened at her apartments an assembly of the princesses of the blood, the generals of the army, the boyards, the patriarch, bishops, and even the principal merchants: she represented to them, that the prince Ivan, by his right of seniority and merit, ought to have the empire, of which she hoped in secret to hold the reins. At the breaking up of the assembly, her emissaries stirred up every where the soldiery against the family of the Nariskins, and principally against the two Nariskins, brothers of the young czarina dowager, mother of Peter I. The strelitz were persuaded that John, one of these brothers, had taken the robes of a czar, had placed himself on the throne, and had attempted to strangle the prince Ivan; and to this was added the poisoning of the czar Fœdor by a Dutch physician. In short, Sophia had put into their hands a list of forty lords, whom she called her enemies, and those of the state, and whom there was a necessity of massacring; and indeed, all were so served that were odious to the strelitz, or suspected by Sophia. Examples of such horrors have been seen in all countries, in the time of troubles and anarchy.

This horrible execution ended by proclaiming sovereigns, in June 1682, the two princes Ivan and Peter, associating with them their sister Sophia, in quality of co-regent. Such were the steps by which she ascended in effect the throne of Russia, without being declared czarina;

czarina; and such were the first examples Peter the Great had before his eyes. Sophia enjoyed all the honours of a sovereign; her bust upon the coins, the signature for all expeditions, the first place in the council, and the supreme power in all respects. She was a person of great wit, even made verses in her language, wrote and spoke well; an agreeable figure gave additional charms to so many talents; her ambition alone tarnished them.

She procured her brother Ivan to be married according to the custom, of which we have seen so many examples. The beauty of a young lady of the name of Soltikoff prevailed against the intrigues of all her rivals. In the midst of the solemnity of these espousals, the strelitz fomented a new insurrection on account of some religious disputes. It was quelled, but soon after followed by a more dangerous one, contrived by a Russian lord, to revenge himself on Sophia's ingratitude, to whose elevation he had contributed. The cause of religion and devotion was the mask of his designs; but, in the main, he did not pretend to less than the empire; and to rid himself of all future apprehensions, he resolved to massacre the two czars, Sophia, the other princesses, and all who were attached to the czarish family. The czars and princesses were obliged to retire to the monastery of the Trinity, within twelve leagues of Petersburg. Besides serving as a convent, it was also a palace and fortress, as Mount Cassino, Corbie, Fulda, Kempten, and so many others among the Christians of the Latin communion. This monastery of the Trinity belongs to the monks of St. Basil's institute; but it is environed with large ditches, and brick ramparts, mounted with a numerous artillery. The czarish family was there secure, rather by the strength than the sanctity of the place. From thence Sophia negotiated with the rebel, deceived, inveigled him half way, and procured him to be beheaded, with one of his sons, and thirty-seven strelitz, who accompanied him. His other associates and the strelitz, who had taken up arms for supporting his cause, were pardoned on making a proper submission.

After these convulsions the state resumed an exterior tranquillity. Sophia had still the principal authority, abandoned Ivan to his incapacity, and keeping Peter in tutelage. To augment her power, she shared it with the prince Basil Galitzin, a person of considerable abilities, whom she made general in chief, administrator of the state,

state, and keeper of the seals. Peter's talents, notwithstanding the endeavours of the princess Sophia to keep him in a state of ignorance, began daily more and more to shew themselves. When he was about seventeen years of age, he had the courage of being czar in effect, though Ivan had still but the name. This was enough to alarm Sophia. In conjunction with Gallitzin, she engaged anew the chief of the strelitz to sacrifice the young czar to their interests; the death of Peter was resolved on; the blow was ready to be struck, and Russia was on the point of being for ever deprived of the new existence it afterwards received. Peter apprized of their designs, was again obliged to consult his safety in the convent of the Trinity, the usual asylum of the court when threatened by the soldiery. There, having called together the boyards of his party, he assembles a militia, confers with the captains of the strelitz, and invites to him some Germans, who had been long settled at Moscow, all attached to his person, because he already favoured strangers. Sophia and Ivan remain at Moscow, and conjure the corps of the strelitz to continue faithful to them; but the cause of Peter, complaining of an attempt against his person and mother, prevails over that of Sophia, and a czar, whose aspect alone was sufficient to banish all affection for him. All the accomplices were punished with a severity to which the country was then as much accustomed as to such base crimes. Prince Gallitzin, by the mediation of a relation in the czar Peter's interest, obtained his life; but he was stripped of all his wealth, which was immense, and banished on the road of Archangel. The princess Sophia was confined to a monastery in Moscow, after having reigned a considerable time; this change was a sufficiently great punishment. From that moment Peter reigned. His brother Ivan had no other share in the government but seeing his name in the public acts: he led a private life, and died in 1696.

History will inform the reader of the acts of Peter I. They indeed afford such matter of good and solid entertainment, that few are unacquainted with them. Here it will be sufficient to observe, that he was justly surnamed the Great, the father and founder of the Russian empire which makes so glorious a figure at this day, and which will be known, as one of the greatest powers in the world, to latest posterity.

*Successors
of Peter
the Great.*

This great and good prince, dying in the beginning of the year 1725, was succeeded by his second consort, the empress

empress Catharine, a lady whom he had raised to his bed, purely from the consideration of her merit. She governed this great empire on the same principles by which it was founded; and, during her whole reign, was respected by her own subjects, and by all the powers of Europe, as the worthy successor of so great a monarch. Yet she enjoyed this high dignity but for a very short space, dying in the month of May 1727, and leaving the empire to the grandson of her deceased lord. Russia, from being governed by a woman, fell under the dominion of a child, who was the emperor Peter II. the last heir male of his family, and in the hands of an ambitious statesman, prince Menzikoff, the favourite of Peter, and no less so of the late czarina Catharine.

Prince Menzikoff was a man of boundless ambition, and at the time of the young emperor's accession, had the whole power of the empire in his hands. He had framed a design of raising his daughter to the rank of empress; and it is not improbable that he might have succeeded in this view, if he had not by an act of insolence incurred the young emperor's displeasure; who, though he was but twelve years old at his accession, yet had so much sense and spirit, that he disgraced and banished this too powerful subject, and confiscated all his estate. He afterwards raised the princess Dolgorouki to the highest employments in the empire, and actually espoused the princess Catharine, daughter to prince Alexis, and sister to the princes Sergius and John; but, before the marriage was consummated, he was seized with the small-pox, of which he died on the 19th of January, 1730.

Upon the death of the emperor Peter II. the regular succession in that empire was at a stand. According to the will of the empress Catherine, her eldest daughter Anne Petrowna, duchess of Holstein, ought to have been called to the throne; but she died the year after her mother, and left behind her a son, who was at that time about two years old. The senate and nobility of Russia, to avoid so tedious a minority, resolved not to adhere to this will; for which they established this pretence, that it was vacated by the declaration of the late emperor upon his death-bed, who had appointed another successor, though at first they could not agree among themselves whom they should declare this successor to be; by which it was very manifest, that notwithstanding their assertions, the young emperor in reality made no such declaration.

It

It has been reported, that some of the principal nobility had thoughts of changing the government into a republic; but that, finding this would be impracticable, they framed a new scheme of rule, which was to govern the empire themselves, allowing only the name and ensigns of sovereign authority to one of the imperial family. The next consideration was, who this person should be; and, after some debate, they cast their eyes upon the princess Anna Iwanowna, duchess of Courland, of the imperial line indeed, but out of all the rules of succession. She was the second daughter of the emperor Ivan, or John, elder brother to Peter the Great, and for some time his associate in the empire; but then she had an elder sister, Catharine Iwanowna, who was married to the duke of Mecklenburg, to whom, if the succession was to devolve first on the daughters of the elder brother, the imperial crown should have come; but her husband was engaged in a kind of civil war with his nobility, and, therefore, it was given out, that, for securing the peace and tranquillity of his subjects, the young emperor Peter II. had passed her by, and called her younger sister to the succession, which, soon after his death, she was invited to accept.

The princes Dolgorouki and their faction, who took upon them the management of this affair, assigned the new empress a council, framed a constitution for the empire, and limited her authority as they thought proper; to which regulations she readily consented: but as soon as the czarina was fixed upon the throne, she cancelled all these limitations, and banished the authors of them. She made choice of grave and wise men for her ministers, and gave the command of her armies to very able and experienced generals; which enabled her to govern with great reputation, and to maintain the credit of her empire with regard to the rest of Europe, in as high a degree as any of her predecessors. She afforded the late emperor of Germany, Charles VI. powerful succours against the house of Bourbon; she seated the late king of Poland, elector of Saxony, upon the throne of his father, notwithstanding all the arts, and in spite of the arms, of France; she made war against the Turks with great success, and, in the course of the war, totally ruined the power of the Crim Tartars. In a word, she made her government as much revered, as, from the power of her extensive dominions, it ought to be, and concluded such alliances with
foreign

foreign states, as were most proper for maintaining that system of government which she laboured to maintain.

She brought to her court her niece, the princess Anne of Mecklenburg, daughter of her elder sister, and married her to prince Anthony Ulric, of Brunswic Bevern, resolved to call the issue of this marriage to the succession. The princess of Mecklenburg was delivered of a son, on the 12th of August, 1740, whom the czarina, according to the Russian constitution established by Peter the Great, named her successor, and directed, that the prince his father, and the grand-duchess his mother, should be his guardians; she likewise appointed a council about the young emperor, whom she thought the most capable of sustaining the weight of affairs, and of preserving things in that condition wherein she intended to leave them; so that there seemed no great reason to doubt the government might be carried on as well as in the former minority; and, flattered with these fair hopes, the empress Anna Iwanowna died, in October, 1740.

The emperor was immediately owned by the senate and people in his cradle; and the marquis de la Chetardie, the French minister, made his imperial majesty a long speech upon the occasion, in which he assured him, Ivan or John, sovereign of all the Russias, of the sincere friendship of Lewis XV. But, as if professions of French friendship were ominous to all princes, it was not long before it appeared, that this government could not subsist in the form in which it stood by the late empress's will.

Peter the Great left behind him a daughter, whose name was Elizabeth Petrowna, a lady of distinguished accomplishments, and then about thirty-eight years of age. She had lived at court, during the last reign, in a manner and under circumstances far enough from being suitable to her birth: and the prudence of her behaviour, joined to that magnanimity with which she had supported her misfortunes, had such an influence on all who beheld her, that she had long reigned in the hearts of the people, while others reigned upon the throne. At last, the whole Russian nation, princes, nobility, senators, soldiers, and even the populace, testified such an affection for her, that some who had served her father with fidelity, and now enjoyed the rewards of their services, resolved to hazard all for her deliverance, and to risk every thing to recover her just rights. They attempted it, and Providence gave a blessing to the attempt: this revolution happened in a
single

single night. On the 5th of December, the princess Elizabeth was a kind of prisoner in the imperial palace, and on the 6th she was seated on the imperial throne, and the tongues of her subjects being set at liberty, saluted empresses of all the Russias, by the unanimous voice of the people. The deposed emperor, John II. was confined at Riga, with his father and mother.

The empress Elizabeth was no sooner possessed of the crown of her illustrious ancestors, than she gave the highest marks of those virtues which rendered her worthy of that elevation, and which her former circumstances had concealed. But her conduct appeared in nothing more wise and amiable, than in the care she took for settling the succession, which she knew must be fixed, before she could hope to see her government firmly established. She therefore resolved to send for her nephew, Charles Peter Ulric, the young duke of Holstein, who was the presumptive heir to the imperial crown, under the original establishment of Peter the Great. He was born the tenth of February, 1728, and soon after his arrival at Petersburg, was declared grand-duke of Russia, and heir apparent to the empire; in which quality he was also acknowledged by the senate, as well as by all the nobility of that great empire, with the utmost cheerfulness possible.

In 1745, he married the princess Catharine of Anhalt Zerbst, by whom he had one son, Paul Petrowitz, born in 1754. On the decease of the empress Elizabeth, he ascended the throne, on the 5th of January, 1762, by the title of Peter III. but was deposed on the 9th of July following, and in a week after died of poison. This prince stands accused of having observed no rules of prudence or moderation either in his public proceedings or private conduct. He had offended the clergy, who are a numerous, powerful, and popular body, by attacking their beads, which Peter the Great had attempted to demolish in vain, and what was still worse, by diminishing their revenues, and changing their ecclesiastical discipline and religious rites. He had offended the Russian grandees by his warm attachment to the prince of Holstein and the Germans. He had shocked all orders of the nation, by his sudden and precipitate change of the political system which had been warmly pursued in the late war by his predecessor in favour of the house of Austria, and by his blind zeal and unbounded affection for the king of Prussia, whom he took for his infallible guide in religion, politics, music, war, and every thing else. Besides all this, his private intrigues
with

with one of the nieces of chancellor Woronzoff, whom, it is said, he loved as well as he could, gave umbrage to the empress, whom he had never loved to much purpose; and it was even supposed that he had formed the design of shutting her up in a cloister, and of raising the countess of Woronzoff to the dignity of empress. But she found means to elude his designs; and it was she herself, at the head of fifteen thousand men, that seized the person of Peter III. being previously proclaimed sole and reigning empress of Russia, and her son, the great duke Paul, acknowledged as her lawful heir.

The czar, her consort, when he first came into Russia, was, indeed, not much disposed to embrace the manners of the people. She, on the other hand, acted quite another part. She studied their language, assiduously complied with their customs in every thing, and expressed, upon all occasions, a great zeal for the Greek church. It was chiefly by her conduct that the emperor met with no opposition at his accession; and having so strong an instance of her power over the minds of the people, this revolution will appear less wonderful than, without considering these circumstances, it would seem. However, as she is a German by birth, and was bred a Protestant, she cannot be supposed to have any partiality to the Greek church, whose doctrines are established in that empire; nor is it reasonable to imagine, that the Russians can naturally have more love for her than for her husband, on account of their being both Germans. If she was engaged to take this extraordinary step by any ambitious view, it is hardly possible that a revolution so founded can long subsist; and it must be allowed, that she is not altogether free from dangers and apprehensions, witness the conspiracies, though hitherto ineffectual, that have been set on foot to dispose of her.

But now, since the base and barbarous murder of the late emperor John (in the castle of Schlusfelberg) to which he was removed since her reign, what must we think of the situation of her mind? Can it be at ease, or does she imagine that tranquillity can dwell with her upon a throne which she has endeavoured to secure by such horrid measures? She has published a manifesto relative to that unfortunate prince, wherein she describes him, from her own personal knowledge, and that of several, who, in company with her, paid him a visit while alive, as a most miserable object, stupid, senseless, unable to read, and troubled with a very great impediment in his speech; that
her

her intention in visiting him was to have given him some comfort, by assuring him that his life should be made easy; but that finding him so poor a creature, not only insensible of her intended kindnesses, but even unknowing of those he had about him, she found it impossible to do any thing more for him, than leave him where she had found him, with proper conveniencies; and that from thence an attempt was made to rescue him by a desperate young officer, named Basil Mirowitz, grandson to the first rebel that joined the famous Mazeppa; but that the guardians of his person, two officers of the garrison, sooner than deliver him up, agreed to put him to death. This manifesto, published to justify this execrable deed, is almost as unaccountable as the deed itself. It seems to have been drawn on a supposition, that all those for whom it is designed are destitute of both common sense and common humanity; for a very moderate portion of these must render this declaration an object of horror. The accounts of Ivan's mental disorder are known by many to be false, and the story of his deliverer (since put to death) is indeed marvellous: but while the voice of nations deplores the fate of the unfortunate Ivan, and the tears of humanity flow at the view of that innocent victim (to guilt and fear) expiring under the blows of two execrable assassins, the defender of this bloody deed dares to make use of the name of Providence and its adorable decrees, and throws a motley mask of religion and politics over a scene of murder. The mind that is truly religious must tremble at this monstrous association.

*Govern-
ment of
Russia.*

The czar, Peter the Great, was the legislator of his dominions; and though no prince was more absolute than himself, yet it is certain that he aimed at setting some bounds to the power of his successors; and for this reason he established a senate, in which it is thought that he had the government of France in view, and that he meant that this should resemble the parliament of Paris, which it does in many respects, and in none more than this, that it serves to give a sanction, and the form and authority of laws to acts that spring from the will of the prince. But still the old constitution prevails, and the true government of Russia is, what it always was, despotic. In minorities, indeed, and in other conjunctures, there seems to be an actual power attributed to the senate, which, to people at a distance, may represent the form of rule in Russia as a limited government; but when we come to examine it more closely, we shall perceive so strict a conformity between

tween the will of the prince and the decrees of this assembly, as must sufficiently convince us, that the imperial power is rather strengthened than controuled by their proceedings. As to the several colleges, as they are styled in Russia, or as called by us, boards, to which the various branches of the administration are assigned, though the form is German, yet the thing is French; and Peter the Great contrived them after the model of the several councils in France. The high-chancellor is generally considered as the prime minister, and the vice-chancellor as his coadjutor.

It will not be amiss to observe here, in concluding this article, that the northern parts of the Russian empire, from the frontiers of the Swedish dominions to those of China and Japan, are guarded in such a manner as to be secure not only from danger, but from apprehensions; having on that side a sea, hitherto impenetrable, and through which, if any passage could be found, it must turn to the benefit, but can never prove of any disadvantage to the subjects of Russia, which is a point of great consequence, and is a blessing scarce known to any other country but this. The frontiers of the empire towards China are also inaccessible, as consisting of deserts impenetrable by armies, but which yield a tolerable passage for caravans; so that the Russians may, in a great measure, always reckon on the friendship of the Chinese; and whenever they apply themselves seriously thereto, may make this friendship turn to their advantage. The Tartars, inhabiting the countries between Russia and Persia, are no longer formidable to the Russians; on the contrary, they all respect them, and many of them have willingly submitted, and become their vassals. The Caspian Sea, and the dominions which the Russians have on that side, give them a fair opening into Persia, which they have already improved so as to gain to themselves a very advantageous trade, and this by degrees may be extended perhaps as far as the East Indies.

*Security of
the Russian
dominions
on the
north, &c.*

S E C T. XII.

Of Sweden.

THE kingdom of Sweden is bounded by the Baltic Sea, the Sound, and the Categate on the south; by the mountains of Norway, on the west; by Danish or Norwegian Lapland, on the north; and by Russia, on the east.

*Bounda-
ries, soil,
products,
&c. of
Sweden.*

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The soil, where capable of cultivation, is tolerably fruitful; but, for want of industry, the Swedes have not a competent supply of corn, and, therefore, import many sorts of grain from Livonia. Their cattle are small in size, their sheep bear a coarse wool, fit only for clothing peasants; their horses are of a delicate-kind: they have plenty of wild beasts, which are hunted for their flesh, as well as their hides and furs: fowl, both wild and tame, are in great plenty, and good in their kind: their lakes are well stored with variety of fine fish: their woods and forests overspread great part of the country, and are for the most part of pines, fir, beech, birch, alder, juniper, and some oak. The air is excessive cold in winter, the mountains being for nine months covered with snow. They have no considerable manufactures, and yet they have a very great trade, and are very strong in shipping; the reason is, the produce of their land, notwithstanding its northern situation and barren soil, is an immense treasure, and makes up for their want of manufactures: this product is not only great, but inexhaustible in its fund, and consists of silver, copper, iron, timber, flax, hemp, pitch, tar, furs, and hides.

Silver mine. The silver they have peculiar to themselves, being found in no other place in all these parts of the world, except in Norway, and this is the product of one mine only, at a place called Nola. The ore in the mine lies one hundred and forty-five fathoms deep, the working of which has continued near three hundred years, and yet, as they relate, is unexhausted. The mine itself is very curious, and strangers are often carried down to see it. The revenue of it to the crown is according to the degree of its being worked.

*Iron and
copper
mines.*

Their mines of iron and copper are very valuable indeed, and are a fund of wealth considerably greater than the mine of silver. They will support Sweden, perhaps, to the end of time; for, as the quantity is inexhaustible, so the advantage of working these mines is very great. Without this, Sweden, which is a poor and barren place, excepting some few valleys and flat countries on the sea-coast, would not be able, on any terms, to import such great quantities of the manufactures and product of other countries as they now do; but their copper and iron supply them with all things, and the balance is always very much in their favour, which is not to be wondered at, as before the calamitous wars they were engaged in with the Russians, which drained them both of men and money, the

the Swedish nation was a formidable power: and they tell us, that Sweden only, without including their provinces in Germany, furnished Charles XII. from the time of his first expedition against the king of Denmark, to his death at Frederickshall, above three hundred thousand men for foldiers, and two hundred and twenty-seven tons of gold, either in specie, or bills of exchange made good in Sweden, or bills at Hamburg, when exchange failed from Sweden; and this was always made good in copper or iron. If this be true, and that we add to it the dreadful havock and destruction of the mines of copper, and of the iron-works, which the Russians made in their several invasions upon them at the end of that war, we need not wonder that the Swedes have been since in a low condition, in comparison to what they were, both as to real wealth and trade. The Russians carried away seventy thousand tons of iron, besides copper; and did an irreparable damage, by destroying the copper mines, which had cost immense sums to bring to perfection; and by cutting down the woods, which were the life and support of the iron works. Notwithstanding all this, and other subsequent disasters, we see the Swedes, by an application never enough to be commended, recovering, and their government and gentry contributing to the repair of their mines, and exciting them vigorously to agriculture, and even to manufactures.

The Swedes have two countries distant from their native one, in which they have still some interest; and these are Finland and Pomerania. In Finland they have very few ports left, the Russians being possessed of Ellingvas and Wiburg. At Abo, and some other small places remaining to them, they drive a considerable trade in deals, which are very valuable in England and Holland, being of a good durable and uncommon kind of yellow fir. They also export the best masts for ships of any place, except Wiburg, in all those seas. The inland country is famed for good horses, and the Finlander horse were once esteemed the best cavalry in all Germany. In Pomerania, the Swedes have still the port of Stralsund, which is a very considerable, rich, trading city, and a good port; and the isle of Rugen is a large, fruitful, and well cultivated island; and from hence Sweden itself, in times of scarcity, is often supplied with corn. Pomerania is of note for the best oak timber and plank, and the Swedes have the greatest part of theirs from hence, with which they build their ships of war at Carelsroon.

*Territories
out of
Sweden.*

*Naviga-
tion of the
Swedes.*

The Swedish navigation was very inconsiderable, till queen Christina, at the conclusion of the war in 1664, obtained from Denmark a freedom for all ships and merchandize, belonging to the Swedish subjects, in their passage through the Sound; and established in her own dominions that difference of custom which still subsists between Swedish and foreign ships, and is in the proportion of four, five, six; the first being called whole-free, the second half-free, and the last unfree: so that, where a whole-free Swedish ship pays four hundred crowns, a half-free one pays five hundred, and a foreign vessel six hundred. But great as this advantage was, it had but little effect, till the English act of navigation bridled the Hollanders, and opened the intercourse between England and Sweden. Since that time their commerce has been much augmented, as well as ours, that way, and goods are transported by both, or either party, according to the various conjunctures of affairs. When Sweden has been engaged in a war, the English ships have had the whole employ; but in time of peace, the advantage is so great on the Swedish side, and merchants so much encouraged, by freedom in customs, to employ their own ships, that English bottoms cannot be used in that trade, but only when Sweden is unprovided with a number of ships sufficient for the transportation of their own commodities.

*History and
constitution
of Sweden.*

The Goths, the ancient inhabitants of this country, have had the reputation of subduing all the southern nations in Europe; but it is not to be supposed that this nation singly could effect those mighty conquests: they were, no doubt, joined by the Normans, Danes, Saxons, Vandals, and other people, and by many adventurers in Germany and other countries through which they passed, in hopes of sharing the plunder of the world with them, and possessing warmer climates. It appears that the countries of Scandinavia, which were Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, were sometimes under the dominion of one prince, and at other times had each of them their respective sovereigns. In the year 1523, Sweden being subject to Denmark, Gustavus Erickson, a Swedish nobleman, assembled the miners of Dalecarlia, with whom he had lived under ground for some time, and joining other advocates of liberty, raised such a force, that he expelled the Danes out of this kingdom; in gratitude for which service, the Swedes first elected him their king, and afterwards made the crown hereditary in his family.

But

But we need not go higher in the Swedish history than Gustavus Adolphus, who ascended the throne of Sweden in 1611. He was a prince of great abilities, which manifested themselves so clearly in his youth, that the states thought fit to give him the entire administration of affairs soon after his accession to the crown, though he was then but eighteen. He found his kingdom the lowest and weakest, as he left it the greatest and most powerful in the North. He recovered from the Danes the fortresses they had taken from the Swedes. Then turning his arms against the Russians, he took from them great part of Livonia, Ingermania, and the city of Hexholm, the possession of which he secured by a treaty concluded under the mediation of Great Britain. The long war he maintained against the Poles proved very advantageous to Sweden, and procured for her the remaining part of Livonia, and the important city of Riga. He next declared himself the protector of the Protestants in Germany against the house of Austria, the power of which was then formidable to all Europe, and which nevertheless he broke in a short space of time, and with a very small force, having soon made himself master of Stetin, and a great part of Pomerania, and defeated the imperialists in the glorious battle of Leipzig, on the 7th of September, 1631. In the battle of Lutzen, on the 16th of November, 1632, the Swedish foot having routed the imperialists, and seized their cannon, the king thinking the horse did not advance fast enough to the pursuit, put himself before them in passing a small river, on the other side of which he was found dead, having his arm broke by one musket shot, and another entering his back, had passed through his body. There were great suspicions of treachery in this case. Puffendorf fixes it expressly upon the duke of Saxe Lawenburgh. However it was, the king's death was soon known, which instead of abating, heightened the courage of the Swedes into fury, so that when the imperialists were rallied, they again attacked and again defeated them, which circumstance does the highest honour to the Swedish troops. Thus fell this great conqueror in the arms of victory.

As he had extended the dominions, and raised the reputation of Sweden abroad, so he likewise acted the part of a legislator at home, and reduced the constitution of his country into order, which he would certainly have improved if he had lived to return into his own dominions. Sometimes a single genius changes entirely the con-

dition and circumstances of a whole nation, as his indeed did the Swedes, and that of Peter the Great the Russians. In virtue of his regulations, the crown, which was before intailed only on the male line, descended to his daughter Christina, a child of six years old; which minority, though it seemed to threaten ruin, proved in reality the great security of Sweden; for the king of Denmark and the elector of Brandenburg remained firm to the engagements into which they had entered with Gustavus, and the rest of the allies became less apprehensive of the power of that crown, than they had been in the life-time of that king.

The chancellor Axel Oxenstiern, to whom the whole management of affairs in Germany was committed, made so right an use of these favourable circumstances, and managed all things so wisely and so well, that at the close of the war, which lasted several years, the Swedes were possessed of one hundred fortified places, and had an army on foot of upwards of one hundred thousand men, which enabled them so effectually to maintain their pretensions, that on the conclusion of the peace of Munster, they had the country of Pomerania, with the duchies of Bremen and Verden, the city of Wismar, a vote in the diets of the empire and circle of Lower Saxony; together with a million of crowns in ready money, as a satisfaction for their services.

As the war was glorious to the arms, so the peace was no less honourable to the councils of Sweden; and the young queen Christina was esteemed and courted by all the powers of Europe. She had a great deal of learning, and a very extensive capacity; but with these great qualities, there was a mixture of many defects. Her subjects would willingly have seen her married to her cousin Charles Gustavus; to which, however, neither she nor that prince were inclined, and therefore she very wisely chose to content all parties, by resigning to him the crown, which she did in an assembly of the states, held at Upsal in May, 1654, reserving only a pension to herself for the support of her dignity; and having embraced the Roman Catholic religion, she retired to Rome, where she lived with great magnificence to the time of her decease, which happened April 9, 1689.

Charles Gustavus, or Charles X. of Sweden, who ascended the throne by the abdication of queen Christina, was son of John Casimir, prince palatine of the Rhine, and Catharine of Sweden, daughter of Charles IX. and
sister

sister to Gustavus Adolphus. He conquered the greater part of Poland in three months time, to revenge the affront done him in protesting against his admission to the crown; but the powerful confederacy of the emperor, Russia, Holland, and Denmark against him, obliged him to relinquish his conquests on that side: he humbled Denmark, and his courage and virtues enabled him to make so great a figure, as not only to maintain the credit which the crown of Sweden had acquired, but to carry it even higher than it had risen under his glorious predecessor, the famous Gustavus Adolphus; but then it was built on the foundation he had laid. A fever cut short his days on the 13th of February, 1660, whilst he was still engaged in a war against some of the greatest powers in Europe.

Charles XI. his son and successor, was but five years old when he died. Things were kept in good order during his minority, the treaty of Oliva being then concluded, whereby the king of Poland renounced his claim to the crown of Sweden, and the republic all her rights to Livonia; a peace also was made at the same time with Denmark. This prince inquired after and corrected all abuses that had crept into the civil government, whilst former kings of Sweden, trusting all things to their ministers, minded nothing but war; and looked particularly into law-suits, sitting himself in the supreme court, and dispatching there more causes in seven years than before had been decided in twenty. By this means he gained the love of his subjects to such a degree, that the states of the kingdom consented, at his request, to take away a great part of the power which till then the senate had enjoyed; and made afterwards such farther alterations in the government, as rendered the king as absolute as any monarch in Europe. But such was his conduct, that the people being satisfied whatever grants or concessions they made were all for their own service, they thought they could never do too much for him; and indeed his reign is the strongest proof, that the surest way for a prince to make his will the law, is to govern by law. Thus, by a steady and prudent management, he supported his own power at home, and maintained the credit of the crown of Sweden abroad to the time of his decease, which happened on the 5th of April, 1697, aged forty-two.

His only surviving son and successor, Charles XII. was declared major by the states before he reached sixteen, notwithstanding the administration of the government was ap-

pointed to be continued in the hands of the dowager of Charles X. assisted by five senators till her grandson came to the age of eighteen. The general peace of Ryfwick was concluded under his mediation in half a year after the declared term of his majority. His neighbours, however, taking advantage of his youth, formed a confederacy for attacking him on all sides, and this without the least provocation. The confederates were Frederick IV. king of Denmark, Augustus II. king of Poland, and the czar Peter the Great, all esteemed as wise princes as any of their times; but influenced in this by their ambition, and the prospect they had of dividing amongst themselves the acquisitions of Sweden. Charles, having penetrated this scheme, landed an army in Zealand, and besieged Copenhagen, reducing in a very short time the king of Denmark so low, that he was constrained to make peace, and desert the confederacy by a treaty signed at Travendahl, August 8, 1700. The very same year he relieved Narva, that was besieged by the czar, and obtained on the 20th of November the most complete victory with the greatest inequality of forces that is recorded in modern history. He turned his victorious arms next against the Poles, forced them to depose king Augustus, and make choice of a new king, which they did on the 5th of May, 1704, in the person of Stanislaus Leszinski, palatine of Posnania. He pushed his resentment still farther, by following Augustus into his hereditary dominions of Saxony, where he exhausted the country by excessive contributions, and imposed very hard conditions on that monarch himself, by the famous treaty which was concluded at Altranstadt, a village within two miles of Leipfick. We may truly affirm the year 1708 was that in which the glory of Sweden rose to its utmost height. Charles had then the balance of Europe in his hands, and might have prescribed terms to all its powers, from the critical situation of his own affairs and theirs; but his boundless ambition threw him very soon into a different condition. Desirous of completing his plan, towards which there wanted but one stroke, he marched through the Ukraine into Russia, resolved to drive the czar out of his territories, as he had forced the Dane to save his capital by a peace, and the Poles to depose a king who was his enemy. This produced the famous battle of Pultowa, which cost the Swedes thirty thousand men, and forced the king to take shelter in Turkey with a handful of people. This fatal engagement happened on the 27th of June, 1709, and
made

made an open for his enemies to execute the projects they had formed ten years before, an opportunity which none of them let slip. The king of Denmark once more declared war, and made a descent upon Schonen; the king of Poland entered again into possession of his dominions; the Russians re-possessed themselves of the most valuable part of the Swedish territories on the Baltic; and though at first the confederates kept some measures in Germany, yet at last they attacked and divided the Swedish territories there: the Prussians got the better part of Pomerania, and Bremen and Verden falling into the hands of the Danes, they disposed of them to the elector of Hanover.

His Swedish majesty returned into his dominions in November, 1714, and very soon made his enemies sensible of his presence. He found his territories exhausted, his own and his predecessors conquests lost, and scarce any friend or ally left; yet he maintained his absolute power over his own subjects, and prosecuted the war with inflexible resolution. He persisted in his former notions of destroying or deposing every prince with whom he was displeased. He meditated a descent upon Zealand, with a view once more to besiege Copenhagen, in which he failed; he engaged in some designs for disturbing the peace of Great-Britain, which were disconcerted; his last attempt was an invasion upon Norway, where he was shot before Fredericksbal, on the 1st of December, 1718, dying as he lived, ill treated, but unconquered.

Upon his demise the states of Sweden declared his younger sister the princess Ulrica Eleanora queen, and her husband, the hereditary prince of Hesse Cassel, generalissimo; for the war still continued. In 1720, that prince, having embraced the Lutheran religion, was raised to the throne of Sweden; and soon after peace was made with all the powers with whom Sweden had so long contended. By these treaties the Swedes recovered part of Pomerania, and the town of Wismar; but the king of Prussia kept the duchy of Stetin; the duchies of Bremen and Verden were left to Hanover, and the czar kept in general all his conquests.

In consequence of these steps, the face of affairs of Sweden was entirely changed, and from being one of the most absolute, became the most limited crown in Europe, the senate having recovered all their ancient privileges, and the states having resumed and even extended their powers;

*Revolutions
in the go-
vernment
of Sweden.*

powers ; so that the king was not able to do any thing of consequence without their approbation. The constitution of the government consisted of four estates with the king at their head : 1. The nobility and gentry ; 2. The clergy : 3. The *burgesses* : and 4 : The peasants. With the nobility and representatives of the gentry, the colonels, lieutenant-colonels, majors, and captains of every regiment sit and vote. The clergy elected one from every rural deanery, consisting each of ten parishes, which, with the bishops and superintendants, amounting to about two hundred, represented that body. The magistrates and council of every corporation elected the burghers to represent them, of which there were four for Stockholm, and two for every town, amounting to about one hundred and fifty. The peasants chose one of their own number, and not a gentleman, to represent them out of every district, amounting to about two hundred and fifty. All these generally met at Stockholm, and, after the state of affairs had been represented to them from the throne, they separated and sat in four several chambers or houses, in each whereof the votes of the majority concluded the rest ; but every chamber had a negative in the passing any law. The senate, without whom the king could determine nothing, were reduced to fourteen, and elected in the following manner ; twenty four of the nobility or upper house, twelve of the clergy, and twelve *burgesses*, chose three persons, on a vacancy, and presented them to the king, who appointed one of them to supply the vacancy ; but two of a family could not be of the senate at the same time, and the peasants had no vote in the election of a senator. When the king was absent or sick, the executive power was lodged in the senate, and the king had no more than the casting vote when present ; but they were accountable to the diet for their administration. Every one of the superior courts of justice had a senator for its president ; and there were councils or boards established to manage the public revenues, as a war-office, commissioners of the admiralty, others for the mines, for commerce, and every other branch of business. Law-suits concerning the titles of estates were but of short continuance, all sales and alienations of lands being registered, as well as the incumbrances on them. People were allowed to plead their own causes if they thought fit ; and in so little reputation was the profession of the law in Sweden, that no gentleman would undertake it.

Criminals for small thefts were condemned to labour in the public works, fortifications, buildings, and highways ; and, what is peculiar to this country, they had courts of honour erected, where if any gentleman had received an affront, he might have satisfaction awarded him. There has been no instance of the punishment of popish priests here by castration, since it passed into a law.

The prince of Hesse, who, we have seen, was raised to the throne of Sweden, was not able to defend the kingdom against the Russians, who, in 1741, invaded Sweden, plundered the country, and destroyed, as before mentioned, their copper and iron-works. There were some hopes that things would have gone better for Sweden after the great revolution in Russia, which placed the empress Elizabeth upon the throne ; but after various negotiations, the war broke out again with greater heat than ever ; and the Swedes, who had so often in former times beat the Russians, were now beaten by them over and over, the best part of their army made prisoners, and all the country of Finland lost, which reduced them to the hard necessity of making peace upon the best terms they could obtain.

In the beginning of this war, Ulrica Eleonora, the queen of Sweden, dying without issue, the Swedes elected the duke of Holstein Gottorp, son of the elder sister of Charles XII. to succeed to that crown after the death of the late king ; but the duke rendering himself incapable of the crown of Sweden, by accepting the reversion of the Russian empire, the Swedes made choice of Adolphus Frederick, the duke of Holstein Eutin, bishop of Lubeck, who some years since revived absolute power, and destroyed the just mentioned constitution.

The Swedes in support of their allies in the late war made a very indifferent figure ; but this may be attributed to a division among themselves, the court being secretly attached to the king of Prussia, to whose third sister Louisa Ulrica, the king of Sweden is married.

The Swedes are a race of men as hardy, patient, and robust, as any in Europe ; and preserve in full vigour their abilities, both in body and mind, to a very advanced age. They have been always very justly esteemed a martial people, and though their force is much reduced, yet the troops they have are as good as ever. They profess the Lutheran doctrine, which is not only the faith by law established, but the only one tolerated among them.

*Character
of the
Swedes.*

them. The nobility, gentry, and better sort of people, have all a tincture of learning, and very few have more; they have always been esteemed loyal to their princes, and have generally shewn themselves hearty friends to liberty, though they have been sometimes mistaken about it, and yet have persisted obstinately in their mistakes. As to the vices of the Swedes, they are at least as conspicuous as their virtues; they have a fickleness in their tempers, equally fatal to them in the pursuit of politics or learning; they have a great proportion of vanity, which displays itself particularly in furniture and equipage; for as to those expences that make no shew, these people are by nature little addicted to them. But the vice most predominant among them is envy, directed more especially against strangers, who if they thrive in trade, at court, or in the army, fill the people with an unaccountable malice and displeasure. And the same bad turn they are apt to take, even against their own countrymen, more especially if they spring from a low beginning, or rise at too quick a rate. They are not much inclined to manufactures, nor have they any true genius for trade, though they have good ships and skilful seamen.

S E C T. XIII.

Of Denmark.

*Division,
boundaries,
and extent
of the king-
dom of
Denmark.*

THE kingdom of Denmark, one of the most ancient in Europe, is divided into two parts by the Baltic Sea, namely, the peninsula annexed to the continent of Germany, and the islands. The former, which contains the duchy of Holstein, South Jutland, or Sleswic, and North Jutland, is bounded on the west and north by the German ocean; on the east, by that part of the sea called Categate, and the Middle-port Sound; and, on the south, by the river Elbe. Its greatest length, from south to north, is about two hundred and twenty-four miles; but its breadth, not including the islands, is not above seventy-four miles; and, in some places, much narrower. The islands, which make up the other part of this kingdom, are Zealand, Funen, Langeland, Laland, Falster, and some others of less note.

*Air, soil,
commodi-
ties, trade,
naviga-
tion, &c.*

The air, though very cold in Denmark, is not so sharp as in some places of Germany, though situated much more to the south; the vapours of the sea surrounding it, melting

melting and dissolving the nitrous particles, carried by the wind from northern countries, before they arrive here. The soil, though in most places barren and mountainous, has good pastures, which feed vast herds of kine, and an excellent race of horses; but the country in general produces but little corn. It has no rivers navigable for vessels of any considerable burthen. There are lakes, which afford a good quantity of fish; and the forests are abundantly stocked with venison of all sorts, and wild-fowl in great plenty. Its commodities for exportation are very few; cattle is the chief, which they sell to the Netherlands; but as for manufactures, they have so few as not to deserve notice.

Copenhagen, in the island of Zealand, is the capital of the kingdom, and is so called from its safe and commodious harbour, the name signifying the Merchant's port; and, indeed, it may justly be reckoned, in all respects, one of the best in the whole world. The chief trade of Denmark is carried on here, though there is some at Elsinour. But the trade of either of these cities is small, in comparison of that on the rest of the Baltic. Goods which sell best in Denmark, are salt, chiefly that of Spain and Portugal, rather than of France; but the wines and brandies of France are the most esteemed. Great quantities of paper are also imported; gold and silver stuffs; silk and woollen stuffs, chiefly those of Holland; with spices and drugs. Tallow, hemp, cod, stock-fish, wheat and rye, are the chief commodities they export from Zealand.

This country enjoys the singular advantage of a sea-coast, for the encouragement of navigation, and their king by that means has a tolerable good fleet; yet they have only the port of Copenhagen that is considerable; and some have asserted, that they scarce ever loaded one ship with their own productions and manufactures, to any part of the world. At present, indeed, in imitation of many other powers of Europe, they seem to give more than ordinary attention to the affairs of commerce and navigation, as well in the East Indies as in Europe; and their merchants begin to increase, not only at Copenhagen, but at Altena, near Hamburg, who, indeed, are not, properly speaking, to be called merchants of Denmark, though many of them are Danes. They are admirably situated for the fisheries, great and small; that is, for the herring-fishery, and for the North Sea cod-fishing, which is on their own coast; and for the whale-fishery in
Greenland;

Greenland ; but they do not seem to exert themselves in any but the whale-fishery, and that to no great degree ; as, on the contrary they buy their herrings, train-oil, and whalebone of the Dutch ; so indolent have they been till lately, and so averse to trade, that, though the best harponiers, and the best steerfmen, and most skilled in the whale-fishing, are found among the subjects of the king of Denmark, yet they generally go to Greenland in the service of the Dutch, the Bremeners, or the Hamburghers.

By the means of Norway, now subject to the crown of Denmark, they supply Great Britain, Holland, France, and Spain, with so great a quantity of fir-timber, deals, &c. that they load thereby upwards of two thousand ships a year, and return seven-eighths, at least, of the value in ready money. And some have complained in England of this timber trade being very detrimental to us ; because we should rather encourage our own navigation, by building large bulky ships, such as are used by the Danes and Swedes, in order to import our own timber from New England, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.

In the history of these northern countries, mention being frequently made of the Baltic, we shall here, with some propriety, give an account of it, and the origin and nature of the toll paid at the Sound.

*Baltic Sea,
and toll
paid at the
Sound.*

The Baltic is an inland, or Mediterranean Sea, so called from an ancient High Dutch word, Belt, signifying a *strait* or *narrow space* ; so that the Baltic Sea is no more than the Belt Sea, or Narrow Sea. The opening of this sea into the ocean is called by the Dutch and us, the North Sea, as the farther and inmost parts are called the East Seas. The part called the North Sea, being the entrance of the Baltic, lies between the Skaw, or Scagh, on the south, and the Naze of Norway on the north. About two hundred miles from the Naze east, and in the middle of the channel of this north sea, stand the islands of Denmark, ten in number, and in a kind of cluster, as if they were thrust together by the stream in the very entrance of the Baltic Sea. They block up indeed the passages, so as to leave no way into or out of the Baltic, but through some of the channels between them ; the principal of which is called the Sound, passing between the island of Zealand and the country of Schonen in Sweden.

The loss of Schonen, though considerable to the Danes, in regard to the largeness and fruitfulness of the province, was yet more so, in respect to the dominion of this great passage.

passage. For, though the Danes, by the treaty of peace, have expressly retained their title to it, and receive toll from all ships that pass, except those of the Swedes, yet they do not esteem the security of that title so firm as they could wish; for, not being masters of the land on both sides, they may have the right, but not the power, to assert it upon occasion; and seem only to enjoy it according to their good behaviour; their stronger neighbours, the Swedes, being able to make use of the first opportunity given them to their prejudice.

As to the original and nature of this toll, it is said to have been, at first, laid by the consent of the traders into the Baltic, who were willing to allow a small matter for each ship that passed, towards maintaining of lights on certain places of that coast, for the better direction of sailors in dark nights. Hereupon this passage of the Sound became the most used; that other of the Great Belt being in a little time quite neglected, as well because of the great inconveniency of those lights to ships passing in and out of the East Sea, as because of an agreement made, that no ship should pass the other way, that all might pay their shares; it being unreasonable, that such ships should have the advantage of those lights in dark or stormy winter nights, who avoided paying towards maintaining those fires, by passing another way in good weather.

Besides, if this manner of avoiding the payment had been allowed, the revenue would have been so insignificant, considering the small sum each ship was to pay, that the lights could not have been maintained by it; and the Danes were not willing to be at the charge, solely for the use of their own trading ships, because they were masters of so few as made it not worth their while; the Lubeckers, Dantzickers, and merchants of other Hanse Towns, being the greatest traders at that time in the northern parts of Europe, by which they arrived to a great height of power and riches; but there being no fixed rule or treaty to be governed by, with regard to the different bulk of the ships belonging to so many different nations, the Danes began, in process of time, to grow arbitrary, and exacted smaller or greater sums, according to the strength or weakness of those they had to deal with, or according to their friendship or discontent with those princes or states to whom the several ships belonged: therefore, the emperor Charles V. to ascertain this toll, concluded a treaty with the king of Denmark, which was signed at Spire upon the Rhine, and was in
behalf

behalf of his subjects of the Netherlands, who had a great traffic in the Baltic; and agreed, that, as a toll-custom in the Sound, every ship of two hundred tons, and under, should pay two rose-nobles at its entrance into, or return from the Baltic; and every ship above two hundred tons, three rose-nobles. A rose-noble is worth about eighteen shillings sterling.

This agreement remained in force till such time as the United Provinces shook off the Spanish yoke; and then the Danes, taking an advantage of those wars, raised their toll to an extravagant rate, the troublesome times not affording the Dutch leisure to redress such a mischief. However, about the year 1600, they joined themselves with the city of Lübeck, in opposition to such an extravagant toll as was taken from both of them; and from thenceforth the Dutch paid more or less, as fortune was favourable or adverse to them; but generally little. In 1647, the first treaty was made between Denmark and the United Provinces, as sovereigns, for this toll; and they were obliged to pay a certain sum for each ship. This was to continue forty years; after which, if in the mean time no new treaty were made, that of Spire was to be in force. This treaty of 1647, expired in 1687, and the Danes agreed to make an interim treaty, till such time as the many differences between them and the Hollanders, in this and other matters, could be adjusted at leisure, and concluded by a more lasting and solemn one. This interim-treaty, which was but for four years, expired in 1691; so that no new treaty being made and completed during that term, the ancient treaty of Spire remains in force, and no other.

The treaties of the English with Denmark are grounded on those between the Dutch and that kingdom, and have reference to them, with a covenant, that we shall be treated as a nation in the strictest friendship with the Danes. The French have an advantage over other nations in passing the Sound, that their goods are not inspected; nor need they, if they will, pay the customs till three months after, on the master's declaration and bill of lading.

From this short history, it appears how slightly grounded the king of Denmark's title is to this right; which, from an easy contribution the merchants chose to pay for their own conveniency, and whereof the king of Denmark was only treasurer or trustee, to see it fairly laid out for the common use, is grown to be a heavy imposition upon trade,

trade, as well as a kind of servile acknowledgement of his sovereignty of those seas; and is purely owing to his taking an advantage of the difficulties of the Hollanders during their wars with Spain, and the connivance of king James I. in prejudice of the English, he favouring the Danes upon account of his marriage to a daughter of that crown; and upon these two examples, all the lesser states were forced to submit.

Nor is it conceivable how it could be otherwise brought about, since it is very well known, that the passage of the Sound is not the only one into the Baltic, there being two others, called the Greater and the Lesser Belt: the former is so commodious and large, that during the wars between the Danes and the Swedes, the whole Dutch fleet chose to pass through it, and continued in it for four or five months together; and the Danish strength at sea never appeared yet so formidable as to oblige the English and Dutch to chuse which passage it pleased. Besides, the breadth of the Sound, in the narrowest part, is four English miles over, and every where of a sufficient depth; so that the king of Denmark's castles could not command the Channel, when he was master of both sides, much less now he has but one. It is plain, therefore, this pretended sovereignty is very precarious, being partly founded upon a breach of trust, as well as on the carelessness of some princes concerned in it, to the great injury of trade.

This toll affords the king yearly a considerable profit, though much less than formerly. About the year 1640, it produced two hundred and forty thousand rixdollars per annum; but, since 1645, it has not yielded above eighty thousand; and, in 1691, it did not extend to full seventy thousand.

The first inhabitants of Scandinavia, comprehending Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, descended from the Scythians, who had no fixed habitations. When they first settled in towns is uncertain. The Cimbri, a German nation, next possessed themselves of Jutland, which from thence obtained the name of the Cimbrian Chersonese. The Teutones, another tribe of Germans, reduced Zealand, Funen, and the rest of the Danish islands. The Jutes and Angles succeeded the Cimbri in the Chersonese, and from the Jutes this peninsula obtained the name of Jutland. In the fourth century, we find the inhabitants of these countries, and the north-west of Germany, called Saxons, a people very terrible to the Roman provinces of

*History
and consti-
tution of
Denmark.*

Gaul and Britain. They invaded and plundered the sea-coasts, and obliged the Romans to station their forces on these coasts, which were commanded by an officer, styled Comes litoris Saxonici; but the Saxons were not able to fix themselves in Britain till the decline of the Roman empire; when Vortigern, king of South Britain, invited them over about the year 450, to defend his country against the Picts and Scots. After they had repulsed those northern invaders, they quarrelled with the Britons who called them in, and at length made themselves entire masters of South Britain.

Saxony, of which Denmark was then deemed a part, was at that time divided among several petty sovereigns and states, who were all united under Gestrius, their first king, about the year 797. The Danes and Normans, or Norwegians, invaded and harassed the coasts of Gaul and Britain in the eighth century, and continued their incursions till the year 1012; when Swain, king of Denmark, made an entire conquest of England, and left it to his son Canute, who was king of England, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, in the year 1020. The Danes and Normans also invaded France, entered the rivers Seine and Loire in their boats, burnt and plundered the country to the gates of Paris, about the same time they had reduced England; and the French were, at length, obliged to yield up Normandy and Britany to Rollo, the Norman general, to preserve the rest of the kingdom.

The kingdoms of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, were after this governed by distinct sovereigns; but Denmark and Norway became united again by the marriage of Haquin, king of Norway, with Margaret, daughter and heiress of Waldemar, king of Denmark, in 1376. Margaret II. queen of Denmark and Norway, subdued Sweden about the year 1390; and Sweden was subject to Denmark, till Gustavus Erickson rescued his country from their dominion in 1525. Christiern II. was then upon the throne of Denmark, but having drawn upon himself the contempt and hatred of the Danes, as well as of the Swedes, on account of his suffering himself to be governed by his concubine, he was at length deposed, his uncle Frederic, duke of Holstein, being elected and advanced to the throne of Denmark in his stead.

This prince, by confirming the great privileges of the nobility and clergy, maintained himself in possession of the kingdom to the time of his death, which happened after a reign of ten years, and left the crown to his son

Christiern

Christiern III. in whose time the Reformation took place; and the Lutheran religion was established by law in this country. Frederic II. succeeded his father in 1558, and was engaged in a long war with Sweden, which ended, however, in 1570, by a peace concluded under the mediation of the emperor and the kings of France and Poland; he died in 1588, when his son Christiern IV. ascended the throne. This monarch governed much longer than any of his predecessors, and in times full of calamity and trouble. Frederic III. his successor, was engaged by the Dutch to break with the Swedes in 1657, which had like to have proved fatal to him; for Charles Gustavus of Sweden laid siege to Copenhagen, and, had it not been for the powerful interposition of the Dutch, would, very probably, have taken the city, which he reduced to great extremities. At this juncture, however, it was, that the king, who, notwithstanding his misfortunes, was certainly as wise and brave a prince as any of his time, found means to change the constitution of Denmark, and, from one of the most limited and precarious, made it the most absolute sovereignty in Europe. According to their old form of government, the whole power of the nation was lodged in the gentry or nobility, for between these there was, in those times, no distinction; every gentleman was a kind of prince in his own estate, and the farmers and countrymen were very little better than slaves. They sent, however, their representatives to the general diet, where they had scarce any thing more to do than to give their consent to taxes, by which they were oppressed to such a degree, that they might be justly esteemed the most wretched people upon earth. The nobility formed a distinct body in the states of the kingdom, and without their advice, the king could do nothing of importance; so, that in time of peace, he was very little better than president of the council, and in time of war no more than general of the army. The succession of the crown, too, was very precarious; for, though the son succeeded the father, yet it was by the consent of the nobility; so that the monarchy was strictly speaking, elective, though in appearance, hereditary. It is not at all wonderful that a king should be extremely uneasy in such circumstances, or that he should desire to fix himself and his family in an easier situation; but it is truly amazing, that, after losing a part of his dominions, and under circumstances of the greatest distress, a king should be able to do this without any foreign force, without bloodshed,

and in less than a week's time; which, however, was what this prince projected, and happily achieved by the interposition of the commons, whose condition could not be worse under the government of a single person, than under such a variety of tyrants. The king governed after this with great wisdom and prudence ten years, and died universally beloved by his subjects, whose affections he gained by many acts of liberality, and by taking care that justice should be duly and speedily administered.

His son Christiern V. succeeded in 1670, and having put his affairs into very good order, and made several powerful alliances, he resolved to lay hold of this opportunity to recover part of what his predecessors had lost to the Swedes; but that he might be in a better condition to do this, he resolved to make himself master, first, of the person of the duke of Holstein, in which he succeeded, but with very little advantage to his reputation; for the duke, suspecting nothing, in 1675, came to Rensbourg to visit him, and was there seized and put under a guard, till such time as he consented to relinquish the advantages he had gained by the treaty of Roschild; after which, the king made himself master of Tonningen, the strongest place in his dominions, and pursuing his advantage, reduced Wismar likewise. He had also some success in the beginning of the next year, but his good fortune did not continue long; for, being defeated by the Swedes, in the famous battle of Lunden, he was from that time never able to do much against them by land, though by sea he was fortunate; but at last made peace with that crown upon equal terms. He afterwards employed his forces against the city of Hamburgh, upon which the kings of Denmark always had pretensions, which, twice in his reign, he had made turn to good account. In the year 1694, on the death of the duke of Holstein Gottorp, his Danish majesty formed two claims upon that family, which were, for some time adjusted by the mediation of the emperor, and the kings of Great Britain and Sweden, William III. and Charles XII. whose sister the duke of Holstein had espoused. But in the last years of his life these disturbances broke out again, and things were on the point of coming to a rupture, when the king died in the month of September, 1699.

His son and successor Frederic IV. acted precisely on his father's principles, and resolved to compel the dukes of Holstein to remain dependent on the kings of Denmark for the future; in order to which, he over-ran that country;

country; and undertook the siege of Tonningen, which gave occasion to the long war in the North at the beginning of the present century. The English and Dutch, as guarantees of the late peace, sent a powerful fleet into the Baltic, and the king of Sweden, at the same time, besieged Copenhagen; so that the Danes were obliged to conclude the famous treaty of Travendahl, on the 18th of August, 1700. It was stipulated in this treaty, that the house of Holstein should, for the future, enjoy the same rights with other sovereigns; that the duke should be at liberty to raise troops, and build forts in his own dominions, provided they were two miles distant from any fortress belonging to the Danes, and at least a mile from their frontiers. It was likewise agreed, that the crown of Denmark should pay the duke of Holstein two hundred and fifty thousand crowns, and that the chapter of Lubec should be at liberty to elect a prince of Holstein for their bishop.

In 1712, the king of Denmark, availing himself of the misfortunes of Charles XII. took the town of Stade and the duchy of Bremen; but the same year his army was beaten by the Swedes, who afterwards burnt the fine town of Altena to the ground. In 1714, and 1715, he had great success against the Swedes both by sea and land; and, in 1716, he drove them entirely out of the places they had conquered in Norway, and, in conjunction with the Prussians, reduced Wismar; after which he did not push the war with the same vigour for many reasons, but chiefly because he saw that his success would be less advantageous to himself than to his allies. This made him the more inclinable to peace, which was concluded under the mediation of George I. king of Great Britain, in 1720. By this treaty, his Danish majesty obtained all that he could reasonably expect; and, which to him was a matter of great consequence, he procured the guarantee of the king of France for the possession of the duchy of Sleswic, and the king of Great Britain renewed his, which had been given before.

His son, king Christiern the Sixth, ascended the throne of his ancestors with universal reputation. He had, in his father's life-time, been very attentive to the concerns of the East India company, and had been in a great measure the support of it; which induced the people to hope that a particular regard for trade would be the principal view of his reign; and so, indeed, it proved. At his very accession to the government he made many

changes, but all of them such as gave great satisfaction to his subjects. In 1732, he acceded to the treaty between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg, by which he obtained their guarantee for his own, and became himself guarantee for their dominions, and of the Pragmatic Sanction. In virtue of a separate article of this treaty, the king obliged himself to pay the duke of Holstein a million of rixdollars, provided he renounced his pretensions on the duchy of Sleswic. In fine, during the course of sixteen years that he reigned, he never fell into one false step against the interests of his crown, or to the prejudice of his subjects; so that, as no prince of his time was more beloved or better obeyed while living, hardly any at their death have been more sincerely or universally lamented.

His son Frederick V. succeeded him, July 26, 1746, in the 23d year of his age. He espoused, about three years before, the princess Louisa of Great Britain, by whom he had Christian, born January 29, 1749: his queen died December 19, 1751. This king steadily pursued his father's maxims in maintaining peace, improving the trade, and encouraging the industry of his subjects. His application to business, joined to a constant and well-regulated œconomy, enabled him not only to live within the bounds of his revenue, but to make considerable savings. It is incredible to what a degree the face of affairs had been changed within the time of his own and his father's prudent administration. New ports were opened, which was owing to the opening of new channels of trade; the shipping of the Danes was more than doubled and the revenues of the crown were increased in the same proportion within that small space; the court was splendid without profusion, the king rich without oppression; the ministers attentive to the duties of their respective stations, not only from the example of their master, but from the sense they had that a contrary behaviour would infallibly draw upon them immediate disgrace. Adored at home, and respected abroad, the king was chiefly attentive to preserve and promote the happiness of his subjects, in which he placed his own.

Towards the close of the late German war, Denmark was somewhat alarmed by the disputes with the house of Holstein, which might have had serious consequences, if the Russian emperor, Peter III. had lived to execute his intentions; but his death put an end to them for the present.

present. In this critical situation, the king of Denmark acted with prudence and circumspection, and though he shewed he was well disposed to compromise matters upon moderate terms, he discovered, at the same time, by the armaments made, that he was in a condition, in case of being attacked, to defend himself.

The Danes have been formerly esteemed a very war-like nation, and though from the misfortunes in their wars with the Swedes, their power is much diminished; yet the credit of the Danish troops is still very good. The forces the king keeps up are very well paid and disciplined, and are numerous enough to secure his dominions against any invasion, more especially as his fleet is in excellent order, and as the Danish seamen and the Norwegians are justly reputed the best in the North.

The laws of this country have been deservedly in reputation, as lying within a very narrow compass, and the administration of justice is so well looked after, that suits in this country are but few, and those very speedily determined. The king makes and repeals such laws as to him appear necessary for the good of his subjects; but the crown has always used its power with much moderation and discretion: so that as Denmark may be said to be the only legal absolute government in Europe, perhaps, in the world, the people have had less reason to regret the change made by themselves than could well have been expected; and if their monarchs copy his example, the Danes will feel fewer evils from the want of liberty, than in other nations are produced by the abuse of it.

S E C T. XV.

Of Great Britain and Ireland, the principal of the European Islands.

THE island of Great Britain lies in longitude (Teneriff being the meridian) between $9\frac{1}{2}$ and $17\frac{1}{2}$ deg. and between 50 and 59 deg. of north latitude. The southern division of this island, or that part of it called England, is bounded by Scotland on the north; the German Sea, which separates it from Germany and the Netherlands, on the east; by the English Channel, which divides it from France, on the south; and by St. George's Channel, which separates it from Ireland, on the west. It is three

*Situation,
divisions,
and extent
of Great
Britain.*

hundred and sixty miles from north to south, and three hundred in breadth from east to west, in the widest part.

The northern division, called Scotland, is bounded on the south by the Irish Sea and England; on the east, by the German Ocean; on the north, by the Deucaledonian Sea; and on the west, by the Atlantic Ocean: it is about two hundred and fifteen Scotch miles in length; and in breadth, in the widest part, about one hundred and forty.

*Situation
and extent
of Ireland.*

Ireland, situated between longitude 5 deg. 40 min. and 10 deg. 37 min. west from London, and between 51 deg. 16 min. and 55 deg. 20 min. of north latitude, is an island separated from England and Scotland by St. George's channel on the east; has the Scots western islands on the north and north-east; the mouth of St. George's Channel on the south; and the Atlantic Ocean on the west. It is reckoned to be about three hundred miles in length, and one hundred and fifty in breadth, or to bear proportion to England and Wales as eighteen to thirty.

*Other
islands.*

A great number of smaller islands lie round Great Britain; some single, as, the Isle of Wight, the Isle of Man, &c. others, as it were, in clusters, as the Orkney Isles, and other little slips, that are scattered all along the coasts of Scotland.

*Advantages in
situation,
&c.*

The three kingdoms have, on all sides, very convenient harbours, and are accommodated with navigable rivers in abundance, which convey to them the riches of the sea and of foreign nations. The advantage of the sea surrounding them, as it is a security against enemies, so it is also against the violent colds to which the climate would otherwise be exposed; for the tides and constant motion of the sea send us in a kindly sort of vapour, which qualifies the natural sharpness of the air, even to such a degree, that, in some parts of France and Italy, they feel more of the winter than we do in England. The soil in England and Ireland doth, in a great measure, owe its fertility to the same cause; the vapours not only mollifying the air, and by that means nourishing every vegetable, but they also furnish us with gentle showers in their proper seasons; insomuch, that our ancestors believed these must needs be the Fortunate Islands, so much talked of by the ancients; as having, of all others, the best claim to those natural blessings and delights, with which they made them abound. It cannot be well determined, whether it was more the courage and vigour of these westerly inhabitants, than any natural cause, which gave rise to the

the opinion, that, the farther west we go, the constitutions of the people are more firm, and their courage greater.

That part of Great Britain which lies towards the Western Ocean is mountainous, as Cornwall, Wales, and many large tracts of Scotland; but the inner parts are, generally, a plain champaign country, abounding with corn and pasture. The most remarkable mountain, as it may be called, is that continued ridge which runs from south to north, dividing, as it were, the whole island into the east and west parts, and is by some writers called the English Apennine.

Face of the country.

The inhabitants of the several parts are of a different original: those of Cornwall and Wales are, in a great measure, the posterity of the ancient Britons; who, upon the invasion, first of the Picts, and then of the Saxons, betook themselves to those mountainous corners and outskirts; and have ever since preserved both their language, and many of their families, from any mixture of foreigners. Of late years, indeed, the Cornish are come over to the English language, modes, and ways of living; and the Welch are not less polite. The Scots are originally Irish, but not without a mixture of Picts; who, though they were subdued by the former, and fell under their government, could not yet be entirely cut off, any more than the conquered usually are in other kingdoms. Bede, Camden, Usher, Stillingfleet, and many other historians, are very positive, that the west parts of Scotland were peopled from Ireland; and the Irish, which is their language, puts it beyond all dispute; but the exact time when this did happen is a point the learned still differ about; while the natives are fond of their own extraordinary antiquity, and their neighbours will not suffer them to run up their original too high. As for England, though the Britons were for many hundred years in full possession of it, and, after that, the Romans made a considerable figure among us, yet we cannot well imagine there is much of the blood of either nation among us at this day. The real Britons indeed, may, with some reason, value themselves upon their descent from the Romans, with whom, in such a great length of time, they could not but have frequent intermarriages, and so incorporate themselves, as it were, into one people. This they may insist upon with more reason, and less vanity, than some among them do, who are fond of deriving their origin from the Trojans, at first hand; but whoever considers how the foreign wars, under the late emperors, cleared this

Original of the inhabitants.

this kingdom of the Romans, and how the prevailing power of the Saxons swept off the miserable Britons, will have but a mean opinion of our title to a descent from either. It is true, we have more of the Roman language to shew than the Welch have; but we have had it at second hand only, from the Normans; whereas the remains these produce have been derived to them from age to age, ever since their mutual correspondence with the Romans; so that the Saxons, and likewise the Danes, who for many years over-ran the whole kingdom, and the Normans who conquered it, are the principal ingredients of the English nation at this day.

And, as we are a compound of the northern nations, and of the Norman, with French, so we seem to retain something of the temper and humour of both, keeping a mean between the two: the Frenchman is brisk, gay, and airy; the Hollander and German inactive, heavy, and unweildy; the Englishman has neither so much of the first qualities, as to carry him to levity, nor of the second, so as to make him fairly chargeable with dulness; his fancy does not out-run his judgment, nor his judgment suppress his fancy: this difference is very remarkable in two particulars, war and learning; in war, what more notorious than the slowness of the Germans, the quickness of the French, and the firmness and bravery of the English? In learning, nothing is more apparent than the bulks of lectures, comments, and common-places, which the first have given us; the little whimsies, airy fallies, and pert essays, we have had from the second; and the solid argument, substantial matter, and true philosophy, from the last. The French, indeed, have done great honour to learning under the protection of Lewis XIV. who established a more lasting name by his eminent patronage of it, than by the progress of his arms; they have also this advantage, that their language being understood in most parts of Europe, conveys their learning as far as it reaches. Could but our English tongue be settled in as many parts of the world, or would our great men make themselves masters of the Latin tongue, and write in a language so universally known, our books would undoubtedly make their own way; they would carry instruction abroad, and bring reputation to our own kingdom.

But, in the main point of view we propose to consider our present matter in, when it is duly considered what quantity of shipping and water-craft of every kind are employed

employed in our home coasting trade round our islands; and likewise the shipping employed to and from Great Britain and Ireland, to the colonies in America; and what quantity the colonies employ among themselves; when these points are well weighed, our seamen and tonnage of shipping would, perhaps, intitle us to the character of a maritime power, though we had no commerce with other nations. Yet, if we had no commerce with other nations, and our neighbouring potentates had, and a commerce so wisely regulated that they were constant gainers by it; and we only carried on a domestic trade with our own territories; should we not be at a kind of stand, with regard to wealth and power, while other nations were daily increasing both? Was this the state of things, would it be possible to maintain ourselves an independent people? Must we not always be at the mercy of our most potent neighbours, and become vassals to their will?

*Commercial
concerns,
and inter-
ests of
Great Bri-
tain and
Ireland.*

Let any man conversant with the world, pass but a transient reflection on the state of mankind throughout the globe, and he will find, that scarce any thing prevails, but a confederacy of civil, ecclesiastical, and military power against the liberties and properties of the whole human species, except in the little spots called Great Britain and Ireland, and their dependent dominions. And was it not the advancement of the commerce of this nation in the days of our great queen Elizabeth, that first enabled us to oppose those chains of slavery which were so resolutely forged for us in Spain? And has not our trade and navigation, ever since, been the only means, whereby we could keep pace with our enemies in riches and power, in order to defend ourselves against that tyranny and oppression, to which almost the whole world is liable? Can any man consider these indisputable facts, and hesitate a moment, whether our trade is not still the only means left us, whereby we can protect ourselves from that bondage wherein other states are involved? Now, as this converse with the world is the honest way to strengthen and enrich a nation, and the great discourager of idleness and debauchery; and as we are situated by nature, and have geniuses proper for its cultivation, ought we not to make it our study to manage it to its highest capacity of advancement? which if we would in earnest pursue, war itself would be such an advantage and security to us, that we should not only be out of danger from our enemies,

mies, but command the trade of the world; and, on the contrary, if that be neglected, all the miseries attendant on slavery and poverty, that shall happen to the nation, may be ascribed to our own improvidence and inactivity.

We see every day, that the convenient situation of any estate gives an estimate, and raises its purchase; and, without convenience, life itself would be but a mere expiration, scarce worth the valuing: Great Britain and Ireland then, most certainly deserve to be valued and preferred to all nations on the earth, having both to so great advantage.

They are islands placed as a centre to the circular globe, towards which, trade may draw a line from the whole circumference: they are blessed with a moderation of every element: no torrid zone scorches, nor frigid zone benumbs their natives, but a medium influence strengthens and beautifies their inhabitants, who are of regular shapes; neither an unwieldy nor pygmy breed, but fit to endure the toils of war, or peaceful labours on the land; our climate is so moderate, that the sun neither exhales, nor the cold phlegmatifies the spirituous parts, but allows a temperature between both; so that our native imaginations are neither too airy for consideration, nor too dull for invention; the soil is highly prolific, and where barrenness appears on the surface, the bowels are enriched with valuable mines. No Alpine mountains, nor Holland bogs, but a delightful variety of hills and dales compass the land; so that, when the parching sun burns up and chops the higher lands, the humble meadows thrive with verdure; and when mighty showers drown the vales, the hills grow fruitful by watering; our lands, when tilled, produce a grateful plenty in return to labour; our trees in general are lofty and well topped, and afford us all the conveniencies we can expect; our kingly oaks so firmly rib our ships, that our royal navy will ever prove an invincible bulwark against any daring foe; our fruits are pleasant and useful; our cattle large, healthy, strong and numerous, and as good as the world produces for labour or for food; their skins are firm and of such contracted pores, that better leather is no where to be met with. Our wool is very good, and, if duly attended to, would equal the boasted Segovia; it is the parent of our chief manufactures, and gives us a plaudit in our cloth throughout the universe. We have fowl in plenty, and that plenty good. In the bosom of our native earth are hid riches,

riches, which are easily obtained by the artist and laborious, as tin, lead, copper, iron, coals, &c. Our land is plentifully veined with rivers, refreshing the earth, and affording variety and plenty of fish. In short, the nation is a verdant field, indented with harbours around it, where our ships, from their natural situation, may ride out the tempestuous storm.

The sea, by Providence, is a wall which surrounds us, to defend us from the Pharaoh that would enslave us. Besides defence, it serves us for various purposes: for also by our ships furrowing its waves, we send plenty out, and bring the richest of the most distant parts of the world into our possessions. It is wonderful also to think, how several sorts of fish, in numbers innumerable, at certain seasons, visit our coast by divine appointment and natural instinct, for our sustenance; and day by day are ready, not only to furnish us with food, but also to be made merchandize of, to the enriching of the nation.

It is very observable, how heaven blesses us by the course of the wind, that commonly blows westerly for above half of the year, which makes all our cape lands and bays, opposite to the French and Dutch coasts, good roads for our ships to ride with security; for we are on the weather, and the French on the lee-shore; besides, our anchor-hold is much better than either the French or Dutch; for we have generally a stiff clay, chalk, or hard gravel, whilst the French have only hard rocks or loose sands; and the Flemings and Hollanders a greater number of sands on their coasts, their water of less depth, and consequently their ports choaked up with quick-sands; when our ships ride safe, even between our sands, by our country's being a weather-shore.

Thus, in epitome, we see what a rich heiress, with an immense fortune we enjoy, by the gift of the great Father of the universe; but we should consider, when this portion was given, gratitude and duty were expected, that it might descend as a jointure to our posterity.

Linens are the staple manufactures of Scotland and Ireland; and the encouragement of the linens and fisheries of the former, and the linens of the latter, can in no respect be injurious to England; but it is highly to the disadvantage of England to support either the French, the German, or the Dutch linens; because the balance is highly against her with the two former, and so likewise with Holland. We shall here say nothing of the clandestine trade of wool carried on by Ireland with France,

as we must naturally suppose that the extension lately granted their trade, will effectually put a stop to such practice.

Within now about forty years, the possibility of Irish linens arriving at their present perfection was looked upon as chimerical, and was treated as such, in the capital contest about taking off the drawback, upon the re-exportation of foreign linens; but fact and experience have demonstrated, that some worthy gentlemen were mistaken in their foresight. Nor are the linen manufactures the only point wherein those people, as well as the Scots, have wonderfully improved within these twenty years, but the Irish have really made considerable improvements in divers other essential particulars, as in the raising of hops, corn, and turnips; in marling, gravelling, and liming land; in the draining of bogs; in making butter and cheese; in spinning baize yarn; in rearing calves, and in working mines. Wherefore, from the extraordinary spirit of industry and zeal for the advancement of commerce in that country, we may hope to see their linens equal those of any foreign country whatsoever. The wonderful improvements also, that have been made in Scotland, are no way inferior; and we have reason to expect, that the fisheries likewise will there increase, to the entire satisfaction of the united kingdoms.

The French are the greatest rivals in our manufactures; but let care be taken to prevent their being supplied with wool from England and Ireland, and we shall soon see an alteration therein. It is true, they have wool of their own; but they cannot work it, so as to injure us at foreign markets, without ours or Irish. As this will be laying the axe to the root of the French commerce, does it not become the wisdom of the nation to think seriously of what so nearly and importantly concerns us?

Experience has sufficiently convinced us, that war is not the way to put it out of the power of France to hurt us. Were we to exert the British bravery at the expence of a hundred millions more than we have done, it is certain, that under such incumbrances, we should grievously waste ourselves; but it is much to be doubted, whether we should gain any permanent advantage over France. For the art of war is now become a science, and indeed, a trading one; and France is often obliged to give their military people diversion abroad, lest they should be troublesome at home. War, therefore, every ten or twenty years seems to be necessary to that nation; but is
not

not so, to us, unless defensively. When the sword is drawn, besides those who immediately engage, do we not see other potentates, from various views and instigations, drawn in on either side; and what was at first a contest only between two, comes at last to involve twenty? Wherefore let us deal with France, and indeed, with all other nations, by the peaceable arm of commerce; let us beat them by our superior industry in the acquisition of such useful arts as will not only employ our own people, but invite all hither who are oppressed in other countries; for plenty of people and of useful arts yield beneficial employment, and will give us such power, that no nation, nor any confederacy, will dare to insult us.

It is the maintaining the British empire in this situation, that ought to be the sole point of view to our statesmen and patriots, as of old among the Greeks and Romans. Our constitution, like theirs, is of a mixed nature; but one may, without partiality or vanity, affirm, that it is more happily compounded; so that majesty and liberty trespass not upon each other, the prerogative of the prince being without restraint, where it may be exerted for his subjects good, and the paramount prerogative being this, that the crown can do no hurt. It is most evident, therefore, that, at this day, our princes can have no temptation to enterprize wars of conquest, as in former times; so that a true spirit of patriotism can never be shewn in opposing projects that will never be set on foot; and in this lies our great happiness, that, having no views or pretensions upon our neighbours, there is no solid, indeed, nor so much as a plausible ground for us to hate them, or they us. This is the true fundamental principle of our policy, that, in respect to the affairs of the continent, we are not to be governed by any of those temporary or accidental conveniencies, which very often, and that justly too, pass for reasons of state in other kingdoms; but by this single rule of their acting in conformity to our natural interells, so far as is consistent with their own.

There is a distinction often made, chiefly by foreigners, between the interests and the commerce of Great Britain; but, in reality, this is a distinction without a difference; for the interest and commerce of the British empire are so inseparably united, that they may be very well considered as one and the same. For commerce is that tie, by which the several, and even the most distant parts of the empire,
are

are connected and kept together, so as to be rendered parts of the same whole, and to receive not only countenance and protection, but warmth and nourishment from the vital parts of our government, of which, if we may be indulged so figurative an expression, our monarchy is the head, and our liberty the soul. Whatever, therefore, assists, promotes, and extends our commerce, is consistent with our interest; and whatever weakens, impairs, or circumscribes it, is repugnant thereto. We may easily, considering things in this light (and if we consider them in any other, we shall deceive ourselves), derive from thence a true notion of the interest of Great Britain, and be able to judge when that interest is really pursued, and when it is either neglected or abandoned.

We have omitted giving here any history of Great Britain and Ireland, and of their form of government, referring our readers to the particular History of each country in the Supplemental Volumes.

S E C T. XV.

Of the other European Islands.

WE shall begin with those in the Atlantic Ocean, and the first that occur, are,

The A Z O R E S,

DENOMINATED also the Terceras, and Western Islands. They are situate between 25 and 32 deg. of west longitude, and between 37 and 40 deg. north latitude, nine hundred miles west of Portugal, and as many east of Newfoundland, lying almost in the midway between Europe and America. They are subject to Portugal. St. Michael's, the most easterly island, is the largest of the Azores, being near a hundred miles in circumference; a mountainous but fruitful country, abounding in corn, fruit, cattle, fish, and fowl. This island was twice invaded and plundered by the English, who got a considerable booty in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Tercera is esteemed the chief island on account of its having the best harbour, and a good town, where the governor of these islands resides, as well as the bishop. This too is a mountainous country, but has a great deal of good arable and pasture grounds, and an excellent breed of cattle. Here the Portuguese fleet constantly

constantly put in, when they are homeward bound from Brazil, Africa, or the East Indies.

The FARO ISLANDS.

THE Faro Islands lie between Iceland and Scotland, and are subject to Denmark. They are very small, and produce no corn. The inhabitants subsist chiefly on fish and wild fowl. There are also a great many small islands on the coast of Norway, the chief of which are Malsfroi and Hilsten.

ICELAND

IS situate between 10 and 20 deg. of west longitude, and 63 and 67 deg. of north latitude. The chief town is Skalholt, where the Danish governor resides. It is a poor barren country, and yields the sovereign little profit. The most remarkable thing in it is the volcano of mount Hecla. Corn will scarce grow in any part of this island; the inhabitants feed on the flesh of bears, wolves, and foxes, and make bread of dried fish ground to powder. Few trees grow here but juniper-shrubs, birch, and willow. Their fish, with roots and herbs, are their greatest dainties.

EAST GREENLAND

IS situate between 10 and 30 deg. of east longitude, and 76 and 80 deg. of north latitude. It is claimed by Denmark, but uninhabited. The chief whale-fishery is on the coast, which the Dutch have in a great measure engrossed to themselves. Whether East Greenland be a continent or island, is uncertain; some imagine it to be contiguous to West Greenland, but no man ever made the experiment.

WEST GREENLAND

IS situate between the meridian of London and 50 deg. west longitude, and between 60 and 75 deg. north latitude. It is inhabited by a barbarous people, among whom the Danes have sent some missionaries to convert them to Christianity; but there are no towns in the country, nor any product that will tempt strangers to traffic with them. The fishery on the coast seems to be all that is worth contending for; and this the Dutch make very free with, notwithstanding the representations and menaces of the Danes upon that head. West and East Greenland produce scarce any trees or herbage.

Islands of the BALTIC SEA.

THE chief islands of the Baltic Sea, are, 1. Those belonging to Denmark, of which Zealand, the chief and the seat of the government, is a barren soil: no wheat will grow here, and there is but little good pasture; great part of it is a forest, and reserved for the king's game. Funen, the next largest island, has barely corn sufficient for the inhabitants. The island of Laland is a fruitful soil, and supplies Copenhagen with wheat. The islands of Langland, Falster, and Mona, are indifferently fruitful.

2. Gothland, Aland, and Rugen, are subject to Sweden. The last is part of Swedish Pomerania, separated from the continent by a narrow channel, not three miles over. The island is thirty miles long, and near as many broad, and is a plentiful country, abounding in corn and cattle; the chief town is Bergen, which has no wall, any more than the other towns, and consists of about four hundred houses.

3. Usedom and Wollin, subject to Prussia, which, by being possessed of them, commands the navigation of the Oder. The passage between these two islands is called the Swin.

4. Osel and Dagho, subject to Russia. They both lie opposite Livonia.

*Islands of the MEDITERRANEAN SEA.**IVICA.*

IVICA is situate fifty miles east of Valencia in Spain, and as many south-west of Majorca. It is about thirty miles long, and twenty-four broad; a mountainous country, the chief produce salt, of which they export large quantities. It is subject to Spain, with

MAJORCA.

MAJORCA, which is situate about eighty miles south of the coast of Catalonia, and one hundred miles east of Valencia. It is about sixty miles long, and forty-five broad. The country is mountainous, but produces corn, wine, oil, and fruit, and has several good harbours. This was the chief of those islands called by the ancients, Balears, famous for their slingers.

MINORCA.

MINORCA.

MINORCA is situate almost one hundred miles south of the coast of Catalonia in Spain, and about twenty miles east of the island of Majorca, is thirty miles long, and twelve broad, incumbered with barren hills, and only valuable for its secure and capacious harbour of Port Mahon, where the largest fleets may ride safe from tempests or enemies, the entrance being defended by platforms of guns, and forts strongly fortified. The English made a conquest of it in the year 1708, which was confirmed to them by the peace of Utrecht, in 1713; and the harbour has since been of infinite service to the English, as here they repaired their ships, and here the merchant ships lay in safety till they could meet with convoys. In April, 1756, this island was invaded by thirteen thousand French under the duke de Richelieu, who became masters of the whole by the surrender of St. Philip's castle, June 29th following, after a siege of two months, having been bravely defended by the late lord Blakeney, the lieutenant-governor: Minorca was afterwards restored to the English by the definitive treaty of peace, 1763; but by that of 1783, it was restored to Spain.

CORSICA.

CORSICA is situate one hundred miles south of Genoa, sixty south-west of Leghorn in Tuscany, and separated from Sardinia by the narrow strait of Bonifacio. It is one hundred and ten miles in length, and fifty in breadth. The face of the country is mountainous, rocky, and covered with wood. The air is pretty good, but the soil barren; however, it produces corn and wine enough for the natives, but has very little to traffic with. It was taken from the Saracens by the Genoese and Pisans, who divided it between them for some time; but at length the Genoese expelled the Pisans, and their viceroy is governor of the island. The doge of Genoa is crowned at his accession as king of Corsica. The natives were for many years in arms against their sovereigns, the republic of Genoa, for which they assigned the tyranny of that government, while the Genoese charged them with being a seditious factious people. They were not long since reduced very low by the emperor of Germany, and afterwards by the French, who sent some forces to the assistance of the Genoese: again they recovered under the spirited conduct

of their general Paoli, and had almost driven the Genoese out of the island; but at length the numerous troops of the French poured in upon them, prevailed; and the island is now subject to them, as by agreement with Genoa, of which we are not able to specify the conditions.

S A R D I N I A,

SITUATE about one hundred and fifty miles west of Leghorn in Tuscany, and one hundred and twenty miles north-west of Sicily, is one hundred and forty miles in length from north to south, and sixty miles in breadth from east to west. It is prettily diversified with hills and vallies; the mountains in the north are very high. The climate is warm, and the air not reckoned healthful. The soil is very fruitful where it is manured, producing corn, wine, and oil, in great plenty; but the people are so indolent, that little improvement is made by them. The Phœnicians and Greeks first sent colonies to this island, and erected several small states, as they had done in the south of Italy and Sicily. The Carthaginians succeeded them, and had almost the dominion of the whole island. The Romans dispossessed the Carthaginians. The Saracens invaded it in the eighth century, as they did Naples and Sicily. The republics of Genoa and Pisa recovered part of the island from them. Pope Boniface took upon him to transfer the island to the king of Arragon, who subdued the Genoese, Pisans, and the rest of the inhabitants, and annexed it to his own dominions; and it remained united to the crown of Spain till the allies made a conquest of it in 1708, and it was allotted to the emperor at the peace of Utrecht, in 1713. The Spaniards recovered it in 1717, but were obliged to abandon it two years after, when it was conferred on the duke of Savoy, in lieu of the kingdom of Sicily, in 1719. The present king of Sardinia is now sovereign of this island, the revenues of which scarce exceed the charges of the government.

S I C I L Y,

DIVIDED from Italy by the narrow strait of Messina, which is not seven miles over. This island is one hundred and seventy miles in length, and one hundred in breadth. It lies in a warm climate, but the air is healthful, being refreshed by sea-breezes on every side. Both hills and vallies are exceeding fruitful, no country producing more corn, wine, oil, and silk, in proportion to its dimensions; from

from whence old Rome was principally supplied with provisions when it abounded with people. The silk, raw or manufactured, with the other produce of the island, are exported in large quantities from Messina, where a consul from almost every nation in Europe resides, to manage and protect the trade of his nation; and, of late years, the Sicilians have traded with Turkey, and the coast of Barbary, which they never did before their late king don Carlos ascended the throne. The most noted of the mountains in this island is that of *Ætna*, now called *Gibello*, a terrible volcano, situate in the province of *Val Demona*. This mountain is sixty miles in circumference, and, at the top, there is a basin of burning sulphur six miles round, from whence sometimes issue rivers of melted minerals that run down into the sea. The hill is so high, that, round the basin, there is a circle of snow great part of the year. Before any great eruption there is generally an earthquake. The port-town of *Catania* was overturned by an earthquake in 1693, and eighteen thousand people perished by it. *Syracuse*, once the greatest city of the island, has been so often demolished by earthquakes, that very little of it remains at present.

LIPARI ISLANDS.

THERE are eight small islands, which lie near the north coast of Sicily, to which the inhabitants give the name of *Æoliæ* and *Vulcaniæ*, feigned by the poets to be the seats of *Æolus* and *Vulcan*, the chief of which is *Lipari*, from whence they are usually called the *Lipari Islands*. Two of them are volcanoes, as *Strombolo* and *Hiera*. The small islands of *Levanzo*, *Maritima*, and *Favagnana*, lie at the west end of the island. Sicily was also called *Trinacria*, from its triangular form. The Greeks and Carthaginians divided it between them, but were both subdued or expelled by the Romans, who reduced it into the form of a province. It followed the fortune of Italy in its several revolutions, until the Sicilian vespers in 1282, when the natives massacred their French masters, who had then the dominion of it. The French were succeeded by the Spaniards until the year 1707, when they were driven from thence by the imperialists; and, at the peace of *Utrecht*, this island was allotted to the duke of *Savoy*, with the title of king. The Spaniards invaded it in 1718, but were forced to abandon it again; and then it was conferred on the late emperor *Charles VI.* who held it till the year

year 1735, when the imperialists were driven out of this island, and of all their Italian dominions; and don Carlos, the king of Spain's eldest son, by the princess of Parma his second queen, was advanced to the throne of Naples and Sicily, which were confirmed to him by the subsequent peace, on condition of his relinquishing Milan, Parma, and all the rest of the emperor's Italian dominions, which the Spaniards and French had taken from him in that war.

MALTA, formerly MELITA,

SITUATE in 55 deg. east longitude, and 35 deg. 15 min. north latitude, sixty miles south of Cape Passaro in Sicily, is of an oval figure, twenty miles long and twelve broad. The air is clear and healthful, but excessive hot, when not cooled by the sea-breezes. The island is all a white soft rock, covered with a foot of good vegetable earth, producing great quantities of cotton, indigo, oranges, lemons, olives, figs, and other fruits, with great plenty of pulse and other garden-stuff; but very little corn or wine, with which the inhabitants are supplied chiefly from Sicily; nor have they any wood, except fruit-trees, on the island. The town of Malta, or Valetta, is magnificently built, strongly fortified, and has an excellent harbour. Charles V. emperor of Germany and king of Spain, gave it to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem in 1530, whose predecessors distinguished themselves in the defence of the Holy Land, and the protection of the pilgrims who resorted thither. When the Christians were driven out of the Holy Land by the Saracens, these knights retired to Cyprus. They afterwards took the island of Rhodes from the infidels, and defended it against all their power for two hundred years; and then, surrendering it upon honourable terms, retired to Malta; and when Solymán, the Turkish emperor, invaded Malta, they obliged him to abandon the island, after he had lost twenty thousand men before their walls. These knights consist of seven several Roman Catholic nations, and are all of ancient noble families. The grand-crosses, as they are called, are the heads of each nation, and are styled grand-priors. Each of them has his convent of knights, and they have estates, or commanderies, in the respective nations to which they belong. These priors elect a grand-master, who is the chief commander in the island. They have a squadron of men of war, and land-forces,

forces, and are engaged in a perpetual war against the Turks, Algerines, and other Mohammedan powers. The knights make vows of celibacy and chastity; notwithstanding which every man keeps as many concubines as he pleases, who are, for the most part, Grecian beauties, which they take in the islands of the Archipelago, subject to Turkey.

There are several other small islands on the coasts of Italy, particularly near Naples and Tuscany, the chief of which are Capri, Ischia, Procita, Ponza, Giglio, Elba, Pianosa, Capraria, Gorgona, and Maloria. Of these Capri is much taken notice of for its noble ruins. It is situate at the entrance of the gulf of Naples, about three miles from the continent, being about four miles long, and one broad. This was the residence of the emperor Augustus for some time, and afterwards of Tiberius for many years. The most considerable ruin stands at the extremity of the eastern promontory where there are still several apartments left, very lofty, and arched at the top. Some years ago there was discovered a paved road, running under ground from the top of the mountain to the sea-side. What recommended this island to Tiberius was the temperate healthful air, being warm in winter, and cool in summer, and its inaccessible coast, which is so very steep, that a small number of men may defend it against an army. And here it is conjectured that emperor had different residences, according to the different seasons of the year. The whole island was cut out into easy ascents, adorned with palaces, and planted with as great a variety of groves and gardens as the ground would admit; and the works under ground were more extraordinary than those on the surface; for the rocks were all undermined with highways, grottos, galleries bagnios, and subterraneous retirements, which suited the brutal pleasures of that emperor, and were afterwards demolished by the Romans, in detestation of the unnatural and lascivious scenes which had been acted there. The rest of the islands on this coast do not merit a particular description; neither do the islands in the Adriatic and Ionian Sea, four of which, as Liefina, Corfu, Cephalonia, and Zant, are subject to Venice; but Leucadia belongs to the Turks.

Islands of the ARCHIPELAGO.

THE principal islands of the Archipelago, or the Egean and Levant seas, are,

1. NEGROPONT, the ancient Eubæa, stretching from the south-east to the north-west, along the eastern coast of Achaia, or Livadia, from which it is separated by a narrow channel, called the Euripus. The island is ninety miles long, and twenty-five broad in the widest part. Before the chief town of the same name, there usually lies a fleet of Turkish galleys, and the captain-bassa, or admiral of the Turkish fleet, is viceroy of this island, and the adjacent continent of Greece. The island abounds in corn, wine, and fruit; but, what is most taken notice of, is the uncommon tides in the Euripus, or sea between the island and the continent. These are sometimes regular, and at others irregular, according to the age of the moon; from the three last days of the old moon to the eighth of the new, they are regular; on the ninth day they begin to be irregular, and flow twelve, thirteen, or fourteen times in twenty-four hours, and ebb as often.

2. LEMNOS, or Stalimene, is situate on the north part of the Archipelago, of a square form, twenty-five miles in length of each side, about seventy miles south of Mount Athos, on the continent of Greece. It produces plenty of corn and wine, but its principal riches arise from a mineral earth, called terra Lemnia and sigillata, from a seal the Turks put upon every parcel that is sold to foreigners; it is said to have great virtues in healing wounds, expelling poison, stopping fluxes, &c.

3. CIO, or CHIOS, lies near the west coast of Ionia in Lesser Asia, about eighty miles west of Smyrna, and is about a hundred miles in circumference. It is a rocky mountainous country, not a river or spring in it, and no corn but what is brought from Candia, or the continent of Asia. They have wine in great plenty, which is reckoned the best in Greece, with oil and silk; and they have manufactures of silk, velvet, gold, and silver stuffs. Their most profitable plant is the lentisk-tree, from which the gum called mastic issues, the profit whereof the government in a manner monopolizes, obliging the natives to sell it to their agents at what price they please to set upon it. This island is populous, the inhabitants consisting of Turks, Latins, and Greeks, being computed at near four hundred and twenty thousand. The

Greeks are the most numerous. Their women are reckoned the greatest wits, as well as beauties, in this part of the world.

4. SAMOS, is situate near the coast of the Lesser Asia, almost opposite to Ephesus, scarce seven miles from the continent, being about thirty miles long, and fifteen broad. A chain of mountains runs through the middle of this island, being of white marble, but covered with a staple of good earth, producing wine, oil, pomegranates, silk, fruit-trees, and other plants. The muscadine wine is much admired; there is also fine wool which the French purchase. Here are great remains of antiquity, particularly the ancient city of Samos, and of Juno's temple, patroness of the island. Tournefort says, there is nothing in the Levant to compare to them; abundance of marble pillars, which once supported temples or porticos, lie neglected by the Turks.

5. PATMOS, lies north of Samos, and is about twenty miles round. It is one of the most barren islands in the Archipelago, full of rocks and stony mountains, without trees or herbage, and not a river or spring in the island, which is not dry in summer; but the haven of Scala is one of the most commodious ports in the Mediterranean: the convent of St. John is situated three miles south of Scala; the building called the Hermitage of the Apocalypse, depending on the convent, has a very mean appearance; the chapel is about eight paces long and five broad; on the right of it is St. John's grotto, the entrance of which is seven feet high, with a square pillar in the middle; in the roof they shew a crack in the rock through which, according to their tradition, the Holy Ghost dictated the Revelations which St. John wrote in his banishment, which happened in the reign of Domitian, A. D. 95.

6. RHODES is situate twenty miles south-west of the continent of the Lesser Asia, and is about fifty miles long, and twenty-five broad. It abounds in good wine, fruit, and all manner of provision but corn, which is imported from the neighbouring continent. At the mouth of the harbour of Rhodes, which is fifty fathom wide, stood the colossus of brass, esteemed one of the wonders of the world, one foot being placed on one side of the harbour, and the other foot on the other side, so that ships passed between its legs; the face of the colossus represented the sun, to whom this image was dedicated; the height of it was seventy cubits (about a hundred and thirty-

thirty-five feet) and it held in one hand a light-house for the direction of mariners. The Rhodians were once the most considerable naval power in the Mediterranean, and instituted laws for the regulation of navigation and commerce, called the Rhodian laws, by which maritime causes were decided in all the provinces of the Roman empire. The knights of St. John of Jerusalem being obliged to retire from Palestine, invaded this island, and took it from the Turks about the year 1308, and defended it against all the power of that empire till the year 1522.

7. CANDIA, the ancient Crete, about two hundred miles long and sixty broad, is almost equally distant from Europe, Asia, and Africa. There are no considerable rivers in the island; Lethe is one of the largest streams. Mount Ida covers the middle of the island, and is, for the most part, a barren rock, scarce any tree or herbage upon it; but the vallies are full of vineyards, olive-yards, myrtles, laurels, oranges, and lemons, intermixed with other fruits, and fine corn-fields; their wines, both white and red, are exquisitely good. The city of Candia, or Mutium, the capital, is situate on a bay of the sea, about the middle of the north side of the island, and was once a good harbour, but is at present choaked up. The siege of this city is famous in history; the Turks invested it in the beginning of the year 1645, and the garrison having held out till the latter end of September, 1669, surrendered at last upon honourable terms, after they had been stormed fifty-six times. The Venetians lost upwards of eighty thousand men, and the Turks above a hundred and eighty thousand, during the siege.

8. CYPRUS lies opposite the coast of Syria and Palestine, from which it is not above thirty miles distant. It is about a hundred and fifty miles long, and seventy broad, and is supposed to have obtained the name of Cyprus, from the great number of cypress trees in it. The air is hot, dry, and not very healthful. The soil produces corn, wine, oil, cotton, salt, wool, and some silk. The traffick of the inhabitants is very considerable, and consuls from almost every European nation reside here. The chief town is Nicosia, the seat of the Turkish viceroy, and formerly the residence of its kings. The chief mountain bears the name of Olympus, of which name there are several more in Turkey. Here are no springs or rivers but such as are produced by the annual rains. This island, anciently dedicated to Venus, has been under the dominion

nion of the Egyptians, Phœnicians, Persians, Greeks, Romans, Saracens, Venetians, and Turks. Richard I. king of England, meeting with an unhospitable reception here, subdued the island, and transferred his right of it to Guy Lusignan, titular king of Jerusalem, whose descendants transferred it to the state of Venice, from whom the Turks took it in the year 1570, and have ever since remained in possession of it. While it was in the hands of the Christians it was well peopled, having eight hundred or a thousand villages; but it is so thinly inhabited at present, that half the lands lie uncultivated. The present inhabitants are Turks, Jews, Greeks, Armenians, and some few Latin Christians; but the Greeks are much the most numerous.

Besides these islands, several others were formerly of some note, as Tenedos, Skyros or Scirio, Lesbos or Mytelene, Delos in the center of the Cyclades, which are about fifty in number, Paros, and Cytherea. Santorini, which is one of the southermost islands in the Archipelago, of about thirty-five miles in circumference, is a kind of pumice-stone rock, covered over with about a foot of earth, raised out of the sea by a volcano, as were two or three other small islands near it: Santorini first appeared in the year 1707. The volcano which formed this island, was preceded, in the adjacent islands, by violent convulsions of the earth, followed by a thick smoke which arose out of the sea in the day-time, and flames of fire in the night, accompanied with a dreadful roaring noise under ground, like thunder, or the firing of great guns.

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